

DOUBLE EXTENSION REGULAR ALGEBRAS OF TYPE (14641)

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ABSTRACT. We construct several families of Artin-Schelter regular algebras of global dimension four using double Ore extension and then prove that all these algebras are strongly noetherian, Auslander regular, Koszul and Cohen-Macaulay domains. Many regular algebras constructed in the paper are new and are not isomorphic to either a normal extension or an Ore extension of an Artin-Schelter regular algebra of global dimension three.

0. INTRODUCTION

One of the most important projects in noncommutative algebraic geometry is the classification of noncommutative projective 3-spaces, or quantum \mathbb{P}^3 s. An algebraic version of this project is the classification of Artin-Schelter regular algebras of global dimension four. There has been extensive research on Artin-Schelter regular algebras of global dimension four; and many families of regular algebras have been discovered in recent years [8, 10, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23]. The main goal of this paper is to construct and study a large class of new Artin-Schelter regular algebras of dimension four, called double Ore extensions.

The notion of double Ore extension (or double extension for the rest of the paper) was introduced in [28]. A double extension of an algebra A is denoted by $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$ and the meanings of DE-data $\{P, \sigma, \delta, \tau\}$ will be reviewed in Section 1. A more general way of building regular algebra of dimension four was presented by Caines in his Thesis [6]. In principle, all double extensions in this paper are also “skew-polynomial rings” in the sense of Caines. The idea of double extensions were used by Patrick [14] and Nyman [12] in a different context. As a generalization of the classical Ore extension [13] the method of double Ore extension is simple and effective. By using the double extension we construct regular algebras of global dimension four explicitly.

Many researchers have noted that the data associated to the whole class of regular algebras of dimension four are tremendous; and one needs to introduce some invariants to distinguish these algebras. For simplicity we only consider regular algebras of dimension four that are generated in degree 1. By the work of [10], such an algebra B is generated by either 2, or 3, or 4 elements and the projective resolution of the trivial module k_B is given in [10, Proposition 1.4]. When B is generated by 4 elements, then the projective resolution of the trivial module k_B is of the form

$$0 \rightarrow B(-4) \rightarrow B(-3)^{\oplus 4} \rightarrow B(-2)^{\oplus 6} \rightarrow B(-1)^{\oplus 4} \rightarrow B \rightarrow k_B \rightarrow 0.$$

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Suggested by the form of the above resolution, we say such an algebra is of *type (14641)*. In this paper we mainly deal with algebras of type (14641). An algebra of type (14641) is Koszul.

With some help of Mathematical software Maple, we are able to classify all double extensions $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ (with $\delta = 0$ and $\tau = (0, 0, 0)$) of type (14641). Since Ore extensions and normal extensions of regular algebras of dimension three are well-understood and well-studied [8], we omit some of those from our classification. Our then “partial” classification consists of 26 families of regular algebras of type (14641); and it provides enough information to prove part (a) of the following theorem.

Theorem 0.1. *Let B be a connected graded algebra generated by four elements of degree 1. Suppose that B is a double extension $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$ where A is an Artin-Schelter regular algebra of dimension 2.*

- (a) *B is a strongly noetherian, Auslander regular and Cohen-Macaulay domain.*
- (b) *B is of type (14641). As a consequence, B is Koszul.*
- (c) *If B is not isomorphic to an Ore extension of an Artin-Schelter regular algebra of dimension three, then the trimmed double extension $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ (by setting $\delta = 0$ and $\tau = (0, 0, 0)$) is isomorphic to one of 26 families listed in Section 4.*

These 26 families of algebras in part (b) are labeled by $\mathbb{A}, \mathbb{B}, \dots, \mathbb{Z}$. Let \mathcal{LIST} denote the class consisting of all algebras in the families from \mathbb{A} to \mathbb{Z} . Regular algebras of dimension three are well-understood [1, 3, 4]. Hence, in theory, Ore extensions of regular algebra of dimension three are well understood. That is our rational to omit Ore extensions in part (b). Besides, there are too many double extensions $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$ to list if we want to include all Ore extensions. On the other hand, in these 26 families, many of the double extensions $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ are still Ore extensions. The reason that we do not remove those Ore extensions is that there might be nonzero δ and τ such that $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$ (with the same (P, σ)) is not an Ore extension. In other words our classification is basically the classification of (P, σ) so that $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$ is not an Ore extension for possible (δ, τ) .

We want to remark that the software Maple is used in an elementary way only to reduce the length of the computation and all computation can be done by hand without assistant of Maple. Further, the regularity and other properties of every algebra is verified rigorously by other means.

As a consequence of Theorem 0.1, for any algebra A in the \mathcal{LIST} , the scheme of point modules (respectively, line modules) over A is a genuine commutative projective scheme [5, Corollary E4.11]. It would be very interesting to work out geometric properties and geometry invariants (such as the point-scheme and the line-scheme) associated to A . There are also various algebraic questions we do not pursue in this paper. For example, for any algebra A in the \mathcal{LIST} , one may ask:

- (a) Is A primitive? Does A satisfies a polynomial identity? What is the prime spectrum $\text{Spec } A$?
- (b) What is the group of graded algebra automorphisms of A (denoted by $\text{Aut}(A)$)? Is there a non-trivial finite subgroup $G \subset \text{Aut}(A)$ such that A^G is Artin-Schelter regular?

- (c) What invariants can be defined for the quotient division algebra of A ? Is the quotient division algebra of A always generated by two elements?

Some of these questions are easy for each individual algebra; however, it could be a challenge to find a general approach that works for all algebras. Question (b) leads to finding more regular algebras of dimension four that may not be generated in degree 1.

Double extensions appear naturally in some slightly different contexts about regular algebras of type (14641).

Theorem 0.2. *Let B be a noetherian Artin-Schelter regular algebra of type (14641). Suppose that B is \mathbb{Z}^2 -graded with a decomposition $B_1 = B_{01} \oplus B_{10}$ where B_{01} and B_{10} are nonzero \mathbb{Z}^2 -homogeneous components.*

- (a) *If $\dim B_{01} = 1$ or $\dim B_{10} = 1$, then B is isomorphic to an Ore extension $A[y; \sigma]$ for some Artin-Schelter regular algebra A of dimension three.*
- (b) *If $\dim B_{01} = \dim B_{10} = 2$, then B is isomorphic to a trimmed double extension $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ for some Artin-Schelter regular algebra A of dimension two.*

Since all double extensions $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ (that are not Ore extensions of regular algebras of dimension three) are classified in Section 4, Theorem 0.2 gives a classification of (non-trivially) \mathbb{Z}^2 -graded noetherian regular algebras of type (14641). Various other properties related to Artin-Schelter regular algebras are studied. Here is another characterization of the double extensions in Theorem 0.1.

Proposition 0.3. *Let B be an Artin-Schelter regular domain of global dimension four generated by four degree 1 elements. Then B is a double extension if and only if there are $x_1, x_2 \in B_1$ such that*

- (a) *B has a quadratic relation involving only x_1, x_2 ,*
- (b) *$B/(x_1, x_2)$ is Artin-Schelter regular of dimension two.*

Here is an outline of the paper. In Section 1 we review some basic definitions. Theorem 0.2 and Proposition 0.3 are proved in Section 2. Sections 3 and 4 are devoted to the classification that is unfortunately very tedious. Our main theorem 0.1 is proved in Section 5.

1. DEFINITIONS

Throughout k is a commutative base field, that is algebraically closed. Everything is over k ; in particular, an algebra or a ring is a k -algebra. An algebra A is called *connected graded* if

$$A = k \oplus A_1 \oplus A_2 \oplus \cdots$$

with $1 \in k = A_0$ and $A_i A_j \subset A_{i+j}$ for all i, j . If A is connected graded, then k also denotes the trivial graded module $A/A_{\geq 1}$. In this paper we are working on connected graded algebras. One basic concept we will use is the Artin-Schelter regularity, which we now review. A connected graded algebra A is called *Artin-Schelter regular* or *regular* for short if the following three conditions hold.

- (AS1) A has finite global dimension d , and
- (AS2) A is *Gorenstein*, namely, there is an integer l such that,

$$\mathrm{Ext}_A^i(Ak, A) = \begin{cases} k(l) & \text{if } i = d \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq d \end{cases}$$

where k is the trivial A -module; and the same condition holds for the right trivial A -module k_A .

(AS3) A has finite Gelfand-Kirillov dimension, i.e., there is a positive number c such that $\dim A_n < c n^c$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

If A is regular, then the global dimension of A is called the *dimension* of A . The notation (l) in (AS2) is the l -th degree shift of graded modules.

Definition 1.1. Let A, B and C be connected graded algebras. The algebra B is called an *extension* of $(A|C)$, if there is a sequence of graded maps

$$0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$$

satisfying the following conditions:

- (a) Both f and g are graded algebra homomorphisms.
- (b) B contains A as a graded subalgebra via f .
- (c) $A_{\geq 1}B = BA_{\geq 1}$ and the map g induces an isomorphism of graded algebras $B/(A_{\geq 1}) \cong C$.
- (d) There is a vector space $\bar{C} \subset B$ such that $g : \bar{C} \rightarrow C$ is an isomorphism of graded vector space and B is a left and a right free A -module with basis \bar{C} .

If C is a regular algebra of dimension n , we call B an n -extension of A . If A is a regular algebra of dimension n , then we call B an n -co-extension of C .

The following lemma characterize n -(co)-extensions for $n = 0, 1$.

Lemma 1.2. (a) B is a 0-extension of A if and only if $f : A \rightarrow B$ is an isomorphism.
 (b) B is a 0-co-extension of C if and only if $g : B \rightarrow C$ is an isomorphism.
 (c) Suppose A is generated in degree 1. Then B is a 1-extension of A if and only if B is an Ore extension of A .
 (d) B is a 1-co-extension of C if and only if B is a normal extension of C , namely, there is a normal regular element t such that $B/(t) \cong C$.

Proof. (a,b) Trivial.

(c) If B is an Ore extension $A[x; \sigma, \delta]$, then it is easy to check that B is a 1-extension of A (without assuming that A is generated in degree 1).

Now we assume B is a 1-extension of A and A is generated by A_1 . In this case $C = k[x]$. Let $\bar{C} = \bigoplus_{i \geq 0} kx_i$ such that $g(x_i) = x^i$. For every $a \in A_1$, $ax_1 \in A = A \oplus \bigoplus_{i \geq 1} x_i A$ and we can write

$$ax_1 = b_0 + \sum_{i \geq 1} x_i b_i.$$

Since $\deg(ax_1) = 1 + \deg x_1 \leq \deg x_2 < \deg x_i$ for all $i > 2$, $b_i = 0$ for all $i > 2$ and $b_2 \in k$. Since $A_{\geq 1}B = BA_{\geq 1}$, $b_2 = 0$. Thus $ax_1 \in A \oplus x_1 A$. This implies that $Ax_1 \subset A \oplus x_1 A$. By symmetry, $x_1 A \subset A \oplus Ax_1$. So there are maps σ and δ such that

$$x_1 r = \sigma(r)x_1 + \delta(r)$$

for all $r \in A$. It is easy to see that σ is an algebra automorphism of A and δ is a σ -derivation of A . Finally it is routine to check that $B = A[x_1; \sigma, \delta]$.

(d) In this case $A = k[t]$. Since B is a free A -module on both sides, t is regular on both sides. By (b), $A_{\geq 1}B = BA_{\geq 1}$. This implies that $tB = Bt = (A_{\geq 1})$. So

t is a regular normal element of B and $B/(t) = C$. This says that B is a normal extension of C . The converse is clear. \square

If A is not generated in degree 1, then it is possible that a 1-extension is not an Ore extension. Most algebras in this paper will be generated in degree 1. Some basic properties of Ore extensions can be found in [11, Chapter 1].

Next we will show that the definition of a 2-extension is equivalent to that of a double extension introduced in [28]. We first review the definition of a double extension in the connected graded case.

Definition 1.3. [28, Definition 1.3] Let A be a connected graded algebra and B be another connected graded algebra containing A as a graded subring.

- (a) We say B is a *right double extension* of A if the following conditions holds.
 - (ai) B is generated by A and two variables y_1 and y_2 of positive degree.
 - (aia) $\{y_1, y_2\}$ satisfies a homogeneous relation

$$(R1) \quad y_2 y_1 = p_{12} y_1 y_2 + p_{11} y_1^2 + \tau_1 y_1 + \tau_2 y_2 + \tau_0$$

where $p_{12}, p_{11} \in k$ and $\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_0 \in A$.

- (aiii) As a left A -module, $B = \sum_{n_1, n_2 \geq 0} A y_1^{n_1} y_2^{n_2}$ and it is a left free A -module with a basis $\{y_1^{n_1} y_2^{n_2} \mid n_1 \geq 0, n_2 \geq 0\}$.

- (aiv) $y_1 A + y_2 A \subseteq A y_1 + A y_2 + A$

Let P denote the set of scalar parameters $\{p_{12}, p_{11}\}$ and let τ denote the set $\{\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_0\}$.

- (b) We say B is a *left double extension* of A if the following conditions holds.
 - (bi) B is generated by A and two variables y_1 and y_2 .
 - (bia) $\{y_1, y_2\}$ satisfies a homogeneous relation

$$(L1) \quad y_1 y_2 = p'_{12} y_2 y_1 + p'_{11} y_1^2 + y_1 \tau'_1 + y_2 \tau'_2 + \tau'_0$$

where $p'_{12}, p'_{11} \in k$ and $\tau'_1, \tau'_2, \tau'_0 \in A$.

- (biii) As a right A -module, $B = \sum_{n_1, n_2 \geq 0} y_2^{n_2} y_1^{n_1} A$ and it is a right free A -module with a basis $\{y_2^{n_2} y_1^{n_1} \mid n_1 \geq 0, n_2 \geq 0\}$.
- (biv) $A y_1 + A y_2 A \subseteq y_1 A + y_2 A + A$.

- (c) We say B is a *double extension* if it is a left and a right double extension of A with the same generating set $\{y_1, y_2\}$.

If B is a double extension of A , then $p_{12} p'_{12} = 1$ and hence $p_{12} \neq 0$. Both Definitions 1.1 and 1.3 are abstract. To study extensions we need to find more precise information about these algebras. The condition in Definition 1.3(aiv) can be written as follows:

$$(R2) \quad \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} r := \begin{pmatrix} y_1 r \\ y_2 r \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11}(r) & \sigma_{12}(r) \\ \sigma_{21}(r) & \sigma_{22}(r) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \delta_1(r) \\ \delta_2(r) \end{pmatrix}$$

for all $r \in A$. Here $\sigma(r) := \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11}(r) & \sigma_{12}(r) \\ \sigma_{21}(r) & \sigma_{22}(r) \end{pmatrix}$ is an algebra homomorphism from

A to $M_2(A)$ and $\delta(r) := \begin{pmatrix} \delta_1(r) \\ \delta_2(r) \end{pmatrix}$ is a σ -derivation from A to $A^{\oplus 2} := \begin{pmatrix} A \\ A \end{pmatrix}$. By

[28, Section 1], σ and δ are uniquely determined. Together with Definition 1.3, all symbols in the DE-data $\{P, \sigma, \delta, \tau\}$ are defined, and the double extension B in Definition 1.3 is denoted by $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$. We call σ a *homomorphism*, δ a *derivation*, P a *parameter* and τ a *tail*. A double extension $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$ is called *trimmed* if $\delta = 0$ and $\tau = \{0, 0, 0\}$.

Lemma 1.4. *Suppose A and B are generated in degree 1. Then B is a 2-extension of A if and only if B is a double extension of A .*

Proof. If B is a double extension of A , then by [28, Proposition 1.14], $A_{\geq 1}B = BA_{\geq 1}$, which is denoted by $(A_{\geq 1})$, and

$$B/(A_{\geq 1}) = k\langle Y_1, Y_2 \rangle / (Y_2Y_1 - p_{12}Y_1Y_2 - p_{11}Y_1^2)$$

where Y_i is the image of y_i in $B/(A_{\geq 1})$. So $C = k\langle Y_1, Y_2 \rangle / (Y_2Y_1 - p_{12}Y_1Y_2 - p_{11}Y_1^2)$ and it is regular of dimension 2. Condition (d) in the definition of 2-extension follows from Definition 1.3(aiii, biii).

Converse, we assume that B is a 2-extension. So there is an “exact sequence”

$$0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$$

where C is regular of dimension 2. Since C is generated in degree 1, C is isomorphic to $k\langle Y_1, Y_2 \rangle / (Y_2Y_1 - p_{12}Y_1Y_2 - p_{11}Y_1^2)$ for some $p_{12}, p_{11} \in k$ and $p_{12} \neq 0$ [27, Theorem 0.2]. Lifting Y_1 and Y_2 to y_1 and y_2 in B . Then y_1 and y_2 satisfy a relation

$$(E1.4.1) \quad y_2y_1 = p_{12}y_1y_2 + p_{11}y_1^2 + \tau_1y_1 + \tau_2y_2 + y_1\tau'_1 + y_2\tau'_2 + \tau_0$$

for some $\tau_i, \tau'_i \in A$. By Definition 1.1(d), $B = A \otimes \bar{C} = \bar{C} \otimes A$ as left and right free A -modules respectively. Thus

$$A_1y_1 + A_1y_2 \subset B_2 = (\bar{C} \otimes A)_2 = \bar{C}_2 + y_1A_1 + y_2A_2 + A_2.$$

By Definition 1.1(c), $A_{\geq 1}B = BA_{\geq 1}$. Because $\bar{C}_2 \cap (A_{\geq 1}) = \{0\}$,

$$A_1y_1 + A_1y_2 \subset y_1A_1 + y_2A_2 + A_2.$$

Since A is generated by A_1 , by induction on the degree of elements in A , we obtain that

$$Ay_1 + Ay_2 \subset y_1A + y_2A + A.$$

Similarly, $y_1A + y_2A \subset Ay_1 + Ay_2 + A$. Consequently,

$$(E1.4.2) \quad Ay_1 + Ay_2 + A = y_1A + y_2A + A$$

and it is a free A -module of rank 3 by Definition 1.1(d). Using (E1.4.2), we can re-write (E1.4.1) as

$$y_2y_1 = p_{12}y_1y_2 + p_{11}y_1^2 + \tau_1y_1 + \tau_2y_2 + \tau_0.$$

Therefore (R1) and Definition 1.3(aii) holds. Definition 1.3(ai) is clear and Definition 1.3(aiv) is (E1.4.2). Next we show Definition 1.3(aiii). By using (E1.4.1) and (E1.4.1), every element in B can be written as $\sum_{n_1, n_2 \geq 0} a_{n_1, n_2} y_1^{n_1} y_2^{n_2}$ for $a_{n_1, n_2} \in A$. This implies that $B = \sum_{n_1, n_2 \geq 0} Ay_1^{n_1} y_2^{n_2}$. Since B is a 2-extension, by Definition 1.1(d), the Hilbert series of B is $H_B(t) = H_A(t)H_C(t)$. Thus B is a left A -module with basis $\{y_1^{n_1} y_2^{n_2} | n_1, n_2 \geq 0\}$. So Definition 1.3(aiii) holds, and B is a right double extension of A . By symmetry, B is a left double extension of A with the same generating set $\{y_1, y_2\}$. Therefore B is a double extension. \square

The following definition is given in [28, Definition 1.8].

Definition 1.5. [28, Definition 1.8] Let $\sigma : A \rightarrow M_2(A)$ be an algebra homomorphism. We say σ is *invertible* if there is an algebra homomorphism

$$\phi = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_{11} & \phi_{12} \\ \phi_{21} & \phi_{22} \end{pmatrix} : A \rightarrow M_2(A)$$

satisfies the following conditions:

$$\sum_{k=1}^2 \phi_{jk}(\sigma_{ik}(r)) = \begin{cases} r & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=1}^2 \sigma_{kj}(\phi_{ki}(r)) = \begin{cases} r & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

for all $r \in A$, or equivalently,

$$\begin{pmatrix} \phi_{11} & \phi_{12} \\ \phi_{21} & \phi_{22} \end{pmatrix} \bullet \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{21} \\ \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{21} \\ \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{22} \end{pmatrix} \bullet \begin{pmatrix} \phi_{11} & \phi_{12} \\ \phi_{21} & \phi_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} Id_A & 0 \\ 0 & Id_A \end{pmatrix}$$

where \bullet is the multiplication of the matrix algebra $M_2(\text{End}_k(A))$. The multiplication of $\text{End}_k(A)$ is the composition of k -linear maps. The map ϕ is called the *inverse* of σ .

By [28, Lemma 1.9] if $B = A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$ is a double extension of A , then σ is invertible in the sense of Definition 1.5. As in [28, Section 3], one can define the determinant of σ , denoted by $\det \sigma$. By [28, Section 4] $\det \sigma$ plays an essential role in the proof of regularity of a double extensions.

Next we will list the relations (or the constraints) between the DE-data that come from commuting $r \in A$ with (R1). The collection of the following six relations is called (R3) for short.

Relations (R3)

(R3.1)

$$\begin{aligned} & \sigma_{21}(\sigma_{11}(r)) + p_{11}\sigma_{22}(\sigma_{11}(r)) \\ &= p_{11}\sigma_{11}(\sigma_{11}(r)) + p_{11}^2\sigma_{12}(\sigma_{11}(r)) + p_{12}\sigma_{11}(\sigma_{21}(r)) + p_{11}p_{12}\sigma_{12}(\sigma_{21}(r)) \end{aligned}$$

(R3.2)

$$\begin{aligned} & \sigma_{21}(\sigma_{12}(r)) + p_{12}\sigma_{22}(\sigma_{11}(r)) \\ &= p_{11}\sigma_{11}(\sigma_{12}(r)) + p_{11}p_{12}\sigma_{12}(\sigma_{11}(r)) + p_{12}\sigma_{11}(\sigma_{22}(r)) + p_{12}^2\sigma_{12}(\sigma_{21}(r)) \end{aligned}$$

(R3.3)

$$\begin{aligned} & \sigma_{22}(\sigma_{12}(r)) \\ &= p_{11}\sigma_{12}(\sigma_{12}(r)) + p_{12}\sigma_{12}(\sigma_{22}(r)) \end{aligned}$$

(R3.4)

$$\begin{aligned} & \sigma_{20}(\sigma_{11}(r)) + \sigma_{21}(\sigma_{10}(r)) + \tau_1\sigma_{22}(\sigma_{11}(r)) \\ &= p_{11}[\sigma_{10}(\sigma_{11}(r)) + \sigma_{11}(\sigma_{10}(r)) + \tau_1\sigma_{12}(\sigma_{11}(r))] \\ & \quad + p_{12}[\sigma_{10}(\sigma_{21}(r)) + \sigma_{11}(\sigma_{20}(r)) + \tau_1\sigma_{12}(\sigma_{21}(r))] + \tau_1\sigma_{11}(r) + \tau_2\sigma_{21}(r) \end{aligned}$$

(R3.5)

$$\begin{aligned} & \sigma_{20}(\sigma_{12}(r)) + \sigma_{22}(\sigma_{10}(r)) + \tau_2\sigma_{22}(\sigma_{11}(r)) \\ &= p_{11}[\sigma_{10}(\sigma_{12}(r)) + \sigma_{12}(\sigma_{10}(r)) + \tau_2\sigma_{12}(\sigma_{11}(r))] \\ & \quad + p_{12}[\sigma_{10}(\sigma_{22}(r)) + \sigma_{12}(\sigma_{20}(r)) + \tau_2\sigma_{12}(\sigma_{21}(r))] + \tau_1\sigma_{12}(r) + \tau_2\sigma_{22}(r) \end{aligned}$$

(R3.6)

$$\begin{aligned}
& \sigma_{20}(\sigma_{10}(r)) + \tau_0\sigma_{22}(\sigma_{11}(r)) \\
&= p_{11}[\sigma_{10}(\sigma_{10}(r)) + \tau_0\sigma_{12}(\sigma_{11}(r))] \\
&\quad + p_{12}[\sigma_{10}(\sigma_{20}(r)) + \tau_0\sigma_{12}(\sigma_{21}(r))] + \tau_1\sigma_{10}(r) + \tau_2\sigma_{20}(r) + \tau_0r.
\end{aligned}$$

The following is a combination of [28, Propositions 1.11 and 1.13].

Proposition 1.6. *Let A be an algebra. Suppose $\{P, \sigma, \delta, \tau\}$ be a set of data such that $\sigma : A \rightarrow M_2(A)$ is an algebra homomorphism and $\delta : A \rightarrow A^{\oplus 2}$ is a σ -derivation and that $P = \{p_{12}, p_{11}\} \subseteq k$ and $\tau = \{\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_0\} \subseteq A$.*

- (a) *Assume that (R3) holds for all $r \in X$ where X is a set of generators of A . Let B be the algebra generated by A and y_1, y_2 subject to the relations (R1) and (R2) for generators $r \in X$. Then B is a right double extension of A . Namely, B is a left free A -module with a basis $\{y_1^{n_1}y_2^{n_2} \mid n_1, n_2 \geq 0\}$.*
- (b) *If further B is connected graded, $p_{12} \neq 0$ and σ is invertible, then B is a double extension of A .*

2. REGULAR ALGEBRAS OF DIMENSION FOUR

In this section we discuss some homological properties of (Artin-Schelter) regular algebras. We assume that all graded algebras in this section are generated in degree 1.

The definition of regularity is recalled in Section 1. If B is regular, then by [18, Proposition 3.1.1], the trivial left B -module ${}_B k$ has a minimal free resolution of the form

$$(E2.0.1) \quad 0 \rightarrow P_d \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow P_1 \rightarrow P_0 \rightarrow k_B \rightarrow 0$$

where $P_w = \bigoplus_{s=1}^{n_w} B(-i_{w,s})$ for some finite integers n_w and $i_{w,s}$. The Gorenstein condition (AS2) implies that the above free resolution is symmetric in the sense that the dual complex of (E2.0.1) is a free resolution of the trivial right B -module (after a degree shift). As a consequence, we have $P_0 = B$, $P_d = B(-l)$, $n_w = n_{d-w}$, and $i_{w,s} + i_{d-w, n_w-s+1} = l$ for all w, s .

Regular algebras of dimension three have been classified by Artin, Schelter, Tate and Van den Bergh [1, 3, 4]. If B is a regular algebra of dimension three, then it is generated by either two or three elements. If B is generated by three elements, then B is Koszul and the trivial B -module k has a minimal free resolution of form

$$0 \rightarrow B(-3) \rightarrow B(-2)^{\oplus 3} \rightarrow B(-1)^{\oplus 3} \rightarrow B \rightarrow k \rightarrow 0.$$

If B is generated by two elements, then B is not Koszul and the trivial B -module k has a minimal free resolution of the form

$$0 \rightarrow B(-4) \rightarrow B(-3)^{\oplus 2} \rightarrow B(-1)^{\oplus 2} \rightarrow B \rightarrow k \rightarrow 0.$$

If B is a noetherian regular algebra of (global) dimension four, then B is generated by either 2, or 3 or 4 elements [10, Proposition 1.4]. Minimal free resolutions of the trivial module k is listed in [10, Proposition 1.4]. The following lemma is well-known. The transpose of a matrix M is denoted by M^T .

Lemma 2.1. *Let B be a regular graded domain of dimension four. Suppose B is generated by elements x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 (of degree 1).*

(a) B is of type (14641), namely, the trivial left B -module k has a free resolution

$$(E2.1.1) \quad 0 \rightarrow B(-4) \xrightarrow{\partial_4} B^{\oplus 4}(-3) \xrightarrow{\partial_3} B^{\oplus 6}(-2) \xrightarrow{\partial_2} B^{\oplus 4}(-1) \xrightarrow{\partial_1} B \xrightarrow{\partial_0} k \rightarrow 0$$

where $B^{\oplus n}$ is the free left B -module written as an $1 \times n$ matrix.

- (b) ∂_0 is the augmentation map with $\ker \partial_0 = B_{\geq 1}$.
- (c) ∂_1 is given by the right multiplication by $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)^T$.
- (d) ∂_2 is the right multiplication by a 6×4 -matrix $F = (f_{ij})_{6 \otimes 4}$ such that $f_i := \sum_{j=1}^4 f_{ij}x_j$, for $i = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$, are the 6 relations of B .
- (e) ∂_3 is the right multiplication by a 4×6 -matrix $G = (g_{ij})_{4 \times 6}$.
- (f) ∂_4 is the right multiplication by (x'_1, x'_2, x'_3, x'_4) where $\{x'_1, x'_2, x'_3, x'_4\}$ is a set of generators of B . (So each x'_i is a k -linear combination of $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^4$.)
- (g) $F(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)^T = 0$, $GF = 0$, $(x'_1, x'_2, x'_3, x'_4)G = 0$.

The dual complex of (E2.1.1) is obtained by applying the functor $(-)^{\vee} := \text{Hom}_B(-, B)$ to (E2.1.1). Condition (AS2) implies that the dual complex of (E2.1.1) is a free resolution of the right B -module $k(4)$:

$$0 \leftarrow k_B(4) \leftarrow B(4) \xleftarrow{\partial_4^{\vee}} B^{\oplus 4}(3) \xleftarrow{\partial_3^{\vee}} B^{\oplus 6}(2) \xleftarrow{\partial_2^{\vee}} B^{\oplus 4}(1) \xleftarrow{\partial_1^{\vee}} B \leftarrow 0.$$

Lemma 2.1(f) follows from this observation. Other parts of Lemma 2.1 are clear.

Lemma 2.2. *Let B be as in Lemma 2.1.*

- (a) Each column and each row of F and G is nonzero.
- (b) If α is a nonzero row vector in k^4 and β is a nonzero row vector in k^6 , then $F\alpha^T \neq 0$, $\alpha G \neq 0$, $\beta F \neq 0$ and $G\beta^T \neq 0$.
- (c) The subspace spanned by elements in a fix column (or row) of either F or G has dimension at least 2.

Proof. (a) If a row of F is zero, then $\ker \partial_2$ contains a copy of $B(-2)$ and (E2.1.1) is not exact; that is a contradiction. So any row of F is nonzero. Suppose now a column of F is zero. We consider the dual complex of (E2.1.1):

$$(E2.2.1) \quad 0 \leftarrow k_B(4) \leftarrow B(4) \xleftarrow{\partial_4^{\vee}} B^{\oplus 4}(3) \xleftarrow{\partial_3^{\vee}} B^{\oplus 6}(2) \xleftarrow{\partial_2^{\vee}} B^{\oplus 4}(1) \xleftarrow{\partial_1^{\vee}} B \leftarrow 0$$

where each $B^{\oplus n}$ is an n -column right free B -module. This complex is a free resolution of $k_B(4)$ by the Gorenstein condition (AS2). The map ∂_2^{\vee} is the left multiplication by F^T . If some column of F is zero, then some row of F^T is zero and $\ker \partial_2^{\vee}$ contains some a copy of $B(1)$. So complex (E2.2.1) is not exact at $B^{\oplus 4}(1)$, a contradiction.

The same proof works for G .

(b) Let M be a 4×4 non-singular matrix such that α^T is the first column of M . Replace $X := \{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4\}^T$ by another generating set $X' := MX$ will change F to $F' := FM$. The first column of F' is zero if $F\alpha^T = 0$. This contradicts with part (a). So $F\alpha^T \neq 0$. Similarly, $G\beta^T \neq 0$. For $\beta F \neq 0$ and $\alpha G \neq 0$ we use the dual complex of (E2.1.1).

(c) If the dimension of the subspace spanned by the first column of F is 1 (which can not be zero by part (b)), then $f_{i1} = \beta_i v$ for some $\beta_i \in k$ and $0 \neq v \in B_1$. Then $G\beta^T v = 0$ for $\beta = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_6)$. Since B is a domain, we have $G\beta^T = 0$, which contradicts with part (b).

If the dimension of the spanned by the first column of G is 1, then $g_{i1} = \alpha_i v$ for some $\alpha_i \in k$ and $0 \neq v \in B_1$. Then $(x'_1, x'_2, x'_3, x'_4)\alpha^T v = 0$. Since B is a domain

$(x'_1, x'_2, x'_3, x'_4)\alpha^T = 0$. This implies that x'_1, x'_2, x'_3, x'_4 are k -linearly dependent, a contradiction.

By using the dual complex of (E2.1.1) we can prove the assertion for the rows of F and G . \square

Lemma 2.2 can be used to show some graded algebras are not regular. Here is an example.

Proposition 2.3. *Let B be a graded domain generated by elements x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 . Suppose B has the 6 quadratic relations of following form:*

$$\begin{aligned} x_1x_4 &= qx_4x_1, q \in k; \\ x_4^2 &= f(x_1, x_2, x_3) \neq g(x_1, x_2, x_3)x_1; \\ &\text{and 4 other relations only involving } x_1, x_2, x_3. \end{aligned}$$

Then B is not regular of dimension four.

Proof. Suppose on the contrary that B is regular of dimension four. Then we can use Lemma 2.2 and use the notations introduced there. The form of the relations implies that

$$F = \begin{pmatrix} qx_4 & 0 & 0 & x_1 \\ * & * & * & x_4 \\ * & * & * & 0 \\ * & * & * & 0 \\ * & * & * & 0 \\ * & * & * & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

where all $*$ are in $kx_1 + kx_2 + kx_3$. Since $GF = 0$, the 4th column of this matrix equation gives $g_{i1}x_1 + g_{i2}x_4 = 0$ for all $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$. Looking back at the 6 relations of B , one sees that only the first two relations have the term gx_4 . This implies that $g_{i2} = a_ix_1 + b_ix_4$ for some $a_i, b_i \in k$. But by the first two relations

$$(a_ix_1 + b_ix_4)x_4 = a_iqx_4x_1 + b_if(x_1, x_2, x_3)$$

where the right-hand side is not of the form $g'x_1$ unless $b_i = 0$ for all i . Therefore $g_{i1}x_1 + g_{i2}x_4 = 0$ implies that $b_i = 0$ for all i . Now the space spanned by the second row of G is kx_1 , which is 1-dimensional. We obtain a contradiction by Lemma 2.2(c). Therefore B is not regular of dimension four. \square

Next we want to show that if a right double extension is a regular domain of type (14641), then it is automatic a double extension.

Lemma 2.4. *Let A be a connected graded algebra and let $B = A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$ be a right double extension of A . If B is a regular domain of type (14641). Then A is a regular domain of dimension 2 with Hilbert series $(1-t)^{-2}$, namely, A is isomorphic to either $k_P[x_1, x_2]$ or $k_J[x_1, x_2]$.*

Proof. Since $H_B(t) = (1-t)^{-4}$ and B is a free A -module with basis $\{y_1^{n_1}y_2^{n_2}\}_{n_1, n_2 \geq 0}$, we see that $H_A(t) = (1-t)^{-2}$.

Let A' be the subalgebra of A generated by the elements of degree 1. Then A' is a domain and generated by two elements of degree 1, say x_1, x_2 . Since $H_A(t) = (1-t)^{-2}$, A (and hence A') has at least one relation in degree 2. Any graded domain generated by two elements with at least one relation in degree 2 is isomorphic to $k\langle x_1, x_2 \rangle / (x_2x_1 - p_{12}x_1x_2 - p_{11}x_1^2)$ for some $p_{ij} \in k$ with $p_{12} \neq 0$ (this is well-known

and a proof is given in [7, Lemma 3.7]). Therefore $A' = k\langle x_1, x_2 \rangle / (x_2x_1 - p_{12}x_1x_2 - p_{11}x_1^2)$ and hence $H_{A'}(t) = (1-t)^{-2}$. Thus A and A' has the same Hilbert series, whence $A = A'$. In particular, A (and hence B) has a relation

$$x_2x_1 = p_{12}x_1x_2 + p_{11}x_1^2.$$

After a linear transformation (p_{12}, p_{11}) can be chosen to be either $(p, 0)$ or $(1, 1)$ that corresponds to regular algebras $k_p[x_1, x_2]$ and $k_J[x_1, x_2]$ respectively. \square

Let V denote the vector space $kx_1 + kx_2$ and W denote the vector space $V + ky_1 + ky_2$. By Lemma 2.4, B contains a relation in $V \otimes V$. Recall that a right double extension B has a relation (R1):

$$y_2y_1 = p_{12}y_1y_2 + p_{11}y_1^2 + \tau_1y_1 + \tau_2y_2 + \tau_0.$$

The condition (R2) implies that there are 4 relations in $V \otimes W + W \otimes V$.

Lemma 2.5. *Let B be a regular domain of type (14641). Suppose that B is generated by x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2 satisfying the following quadratic relations:*

- (i) $f_1 = 0$ for some $f_1 \in V \otimes V$.
- (ii) four relations $f_i = 0$ for $i = 2, 3, 4, 5$ where $f_i \in V \otimes W + W \otimes V$.
- (iii) one relation f_6 of the modified form of (R1)

$$(E2.5.1) \quad y_2y_1 = p_{12}y_1y_2 + p_{11}y_1^2 + \tau_1y_1 + \tau_2y_2 + y_1\tau'_1 + y_2\tau'_2 + \tau_0$$

with $p_{12}, p_{11} \in k$ and $0 \neq p_{12}$, and where $\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau'_1, \tau'_2 \in V$ and $\tau_0 \in V \otimes V$.

Then

- (a) $VW = WV$ in B .
- (b) Let A be the subalgebra of B generated by V . Then $Ay_1 + Ay_2 + A = y_1A + y_2A + A$.
- (c) B is a double extension $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$. In particular, σ is invertible.

Proof. (a) The assertion is equivalent to equation

$$Vy_1 + Vy_2 + V^2 = y_1V + y_2V + V^2.$$

Suppose this is not true. Then we have the following two cases: either

$$Vy_1 + Vy_2 + V^2 \subsetneq y_1V + y_2V + V^2,$$

or

$$Vy_1 + Vy_2 + V^2 \supsetneq y_1V + y_2V + V^2.$$

Note that the relation (E2.5.1) is left-right symmetric and that all other five relations are clearly left-right symmetric. By symmetry let us only consider the first case. Let V_0 be the maximal subspace of V such that

$$V_0y_1 + V_0y_2 \subset WV = y_1V + y_2V + V^2.$$

By the assumption of the first case, $\dim V_0 \leq 1$. Write the six relations of B as

$$0 = f_i = f_{i1}x_1 + f_{i2}x_2 + f_{i3}y_1 + f_{i4}y_2$$

for $i = 1, \dots, 6$. Let $F = (f_{ij})_{6 \times 4}$ be the matrix defined as in Lemma 2.1(d). The relation (E2.5.1) can be written as

$$0 = f_6 = f_{61}x_1 + f_{62}x_2 + f_{63}y_1 + f_{64}y_2$$

where $f_{63} = -y_2 + p_{11}y_1 + \tau_1$ and $f_{64} = p_{12}y_1 + \tau_2$. Since all other five relations are elements in $W \otimes V + V \otimes W$, we have $f_{i3}, f_{i4} \in V$ for all $i = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$. Let

$G = (g_{ij})_{4 \times 6}$ be defined as in Lemma 2.1(e). Since $GF = 0$ [Lemma 2.1(g)], the third and fourth columns of this matrix equation implies that, for all $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$,

$$(E2.5.2) \quad g_{i6}(p_{12}y_1 + \tau_2) = - \sum_{k=1}^5 g_{ik}f_{k3} \in WV$$

$$(E2.5.3) \quad g_{i6}(-y_2 + p_{11}y_1 + \tau_1) = - \sum_{k=1}^5 g_{ik}f_{k4} \in WV.$$

Since $p_{12} \neq 0$ and $\tau_2 \in V$, (E2.5.2) implies that $g_{i6}y_1 \in WV$. Since (E2.5.2) does not contain the term y_1y_2 and since (E2.5.1) has a nonzero term $p_{12}y_1y_2$, (E2.5.2) is a linear combination of relations other than (E2.5.1). So $g_{i6} \in V$. A linear combination of (E2.5.2) and (E2.5.3) shows that $g_{i6}y_2 \in WV$. By the definition of V_0 , $g_{i6} \in V_0$ for all i , and hence the space spanned by the sixth column of G has dimension at most 1. This contradicts Lemma 2.2(c). Therefore part (a) follows.

(b) By part (a) and induction one sees that $V^nW = WV^n$ for all n . Hence $\sum_{n \geq 0} V^nW = \sum_{n \geq 0} WV^n$. Since $A = \sum_{n \geq 0} V^n$, we have $AW = WA$, or

$$Ay_1 + Ay_2 + A_{\geq 1} = y_1A + y_2A + A_{\geq 1}.$$

The assertion follows by adding k to the above equation.

(c) By Lemma 2.4, A is a regular algebra of dimension 2 with Hilbert series $H_A(t) = (1-t)^{-2}$.

By part (a), the relation (E2.5.1) can be simplified to the form of (R1), namely we may assume $\tau'_1 = \tau'_2 = 0$. We claim that

every element f in B can be written as an element in $\sum_{n_1, n_2 \geq 0} Ay_1^{n_1}y_2^{n_2}$.

Let \deg_y be the degree of an element with respect to y_1 and y_2 , namely, $\deg_y x_i = 0$ and $\deg_y y_i = 1$ for $i = 1, 2$. If $\deg_y f \leq 1$, the assertion follows from part (b). If $\deg_y f > 1$, the assertion follows from the induction on \deg_y , part (b) and the relation (R1) (which is equivalent to (E2.5.1) after we proved part (b)).

Since the Hilbert series of B is $(1-t)^{-4}$, an easy computation shows that $\sum_{n_1, n_2 \geq 0} Ay_1^{n_1}y_2^{n_2}$ is a free A -module with basis $\{y_1^{n_1}y_2^{n_2}\}_{\{n_1, n_2 \geq 0\}}$. By Definition 1.3, B is a right double extension of A ; so we can write $B = A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$. By part (b) we have $Ay_1 \oplus Ay_2 \oplus A = y_1A + y_2A + A$. This implies that the Hilbert series of $y_1A + y_2A + A$ is equal to the Hilbert series of $Ay_1 \oplus Ay_2 \oplus A$, which is $(1+2t)(1-t)^{-2}$. By the k -dimensional counting, $y_1A + y_2A + A$ must be free over A with basis $\{1, y_1, y_2\}$. Hence

$$Ay_1 \oplus Ay_2 \oplus A = Ay_1 + Ay_2 + A = y_1A + y_2A + A = y_1A \oplus y_2A \oplus A.$$

By [28, Lemma 1.9], σ is invertible. Since $p_{12} \neq 0$, by [28, Proposition 1.13], B is a double extension. \square

In Lemma 2.5 we assumed that $p_{12} \neq 0$. We show next that this condition is not too restrictive.

Lemma 2.6. *Let B be a regular domain of type (14641) generated by x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2 . Suppose B has six quadratic relations satisfying the following conditions:*

- (i) *The first relation is $f_1 = 0$ for some $f_1 \in V \otimes V$.*
- (ii) *There are four relations in $V \otimes W + W \otimes V$ such that*
 - (iia) *two of these are of the form $f'_2 = 0, f'_3 = 0$ where $f'_2 = y_2x_1 - h_2$ and $f'_3 = y_2x_2 - h_3$ for some $h_2, h_3 \in V \otimes W$;*

- (iib) and other two are $f'_i = 0$ for $i = 4, 5$ where $f_i \in V \otimes W + W \otimes V$.
 (iii) The last relation f_6 is of the form

$$-y_2y_1 + p_{12}y_1y_2 + p_{11}y_1^2 + h = 0$$

for some $h \in W \otimes V + V \otimes W$.

Then B can not have three relations $f_i = 0$ for linearly independent elements $\{f_1, f_2, f_3\} \subset W \otimes V$.

Proof. If $p_{12} \neq 0$, by Lemma 2.5, B is a double extension and σ is invertible. In this case, it is easy to see that there is only one relation $f_1 \in W \otimes V$.

In the rest of the proof, we assume $p_{12} = 0$. We continue to use the notations introduced in Lemma 2.1.

Assume on the contrary that three of six relations of B are of the form $f_i = 0$ where $f_i \in W \otimes V$ for $i = 1, 2, 3$. This implies that the matrix F is of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} \bullet & \bullet & 0 & 0 \\ \bullet & \bullet & 0 & 0 \\ \bullet & \bullet & 0 & 0 \\ \bullet & \bullet & f_{43} & * \\ \bullet & \bullet & f_{53} & * \\ \bullet & \bullet & -y_2 + p_{11}y_1 + q_3 & * \end{pmatrix}$$

where \bullet denotes elements in W , and $*$ denotes elements in V , and $f_{43}, f_{53}, q_3 \in V$. The third column of the matrix equation $GF = 0$ gives rise to the equations

$$(E2.6.1) \quad g_{i4}f_{43} + g_{i5}f_{53} + g_{i6}(-y_2 + p_{11}y_1 + q_3) = 0$$

for $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$. Since we assume $p_{12} = 0$, any quadratic relation of B contains neither y_1y_2 nor y_2^2 . This implies that $g_{i6} \in V$ for all i . By Lemma 2.2(c), the vector space V' spanned by g_{i6} for $i = 1, \dots, 4$ has dimension at least 2, whence $V' = V$. This means that there are at least two relations which can be derived from (E2.6.1) with $g_{i6} \neq 0$. Up to linear transformation we may assume that the relations derived from (E2.6.1) are of the form

$$h_4 + x_1(-y_2 + p_{11}y_1 + q_3) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad h_5 + x_2(-y_2 + p_{11}y_1 + q_3) = 0$$

where $h_4, h_5 \in W \otimes V$. Denote these two relations as $f_4 = 0$ and $f_5 = 0$. Clearly, $\{f_4, f_5\}$ is linearly independent in the quotient space $(V \otimes W + W \otimes V)/W \otimes V$. Recall that, for the first three relations $f_i = 0$, $i = 1, 2, 3$, we have $f_i \in W \otimes V$ and, for the sixth relation, f_6 contains a nonzero monomial y_2y_1 . Hence $\{f_1, f_2, f_3, f_4, f_5, f_6\}$ are linearly independent, and we may use these relations as the defining relations of B . Hence the matrix F becomes

$$\begin{pmatrix} \bullet & \bullet & 0 & 0 \\ \bullet & \bullet & 0 & 0 \\ \bullet & \bullet & 0 & 0 \\ \bullet & \bullet & p_{11}x_1 & -x_1 \\ \bullet & \bullet & p_{11}x_2 & -x_2 \\ \bullet & \bullet & -y_2 + p_{11}y_1 + q_3 & f_{64} \end{pmatrix}$$

where $f_{64} \in V$. The third and fourth columns of the matrix equation $GF = 0$ read as follows:

$$g_{i4}p_{11}x_1 + g_{i5}p_{11}x_2 + g_{i6}(-y_2 + p_{11}y_1 + q_3) = 0$$

and

$$g_{i4}(-x_1) + g_{i5}(-x_2) + g_{i6}f_{64} = 0.$$

Combining these two we obtain

$$g_{i6}(-y_2 + p_{11}y_1 + q_3 + p_{11}f_{64}) = 0$$

which contradicts to the fact B is a domain. Therefore we have proved that if $p_{12} = 0$ then B can not have three relations $f_1 = 0, f_2 = 0, f_3 = 0$ with linearly independent elements $\{f_1, f_2, f_3\} \subset W \otimes V$. \square

Lemma 2.7. *Let B be as in Lemma 2.6. Then*

- (a) $p_{12} \neq 0$.
- (b) B is a double extension $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$ where A is the subalgebra generated by x_1 and x_2 .

Proof. (a) Suppose on the contrary that $p_{12} = 0$. We use the form of six relations given in (i), (ii) and (iii) of Lemma 2.6.

Without loss of generality, we may assume that the terms y_2x_1, y_2x_2 do not appear in f_i for all $i \neq 2, 3$. Thus we can write the F as follows:

$$F = \begin{pmatrix} * & * & 0 & 0 \\ y_2 + q_1 & * & * & * \\ * & y_2 + q_2 & * & * \\ * & * & * & * \\ * & * & * & * \\ * & * & -y_2 + p_{11}y_1 + q_3 & * \end{pmatrix}$$

where $q_i \in V$ and where all $*$ denotes elements in $V + ky_1$. For each i , we consider the equation

$$0 = \sum_{k=1}^6 g_{ik}f_{k3} = \sum_{k=1}^5 g_{ik}f_{k3} + g_{i6}f_{63}$$

which comes from the the third column of the matrix equation $GF = 0$. Since y_1y_2 and y_2^2 do not appear in any of the relations and since f_{k3} does not contain y_2 for all $k \neq 6$, g_{i6} does not contain either y_1 or y_2 . So $g_{i6} \in V$ for all i . Similarly one can show that $g_{i2}, g_{i3} \in V$ for all i . The six relations of B can also be obtained by the multiplication $(x'_1, x'_2, x'_3, x'_4)G$. So three relations corresponding to columns 2, 3, 6 of $(x'_1, x'_2, x'_3, x'_4)G$ is in $W \otimes V$. But this contradicts Lemma 2.6. Therefore $p_{12} \neq 0$.

(b,c) Follows from part (a) and Lemma 2.5(c). \square

Now we can prove the main result in this section.

Theorem 2.8. *Let B be a regular domain of type (14641). Suppose one of the following conditions holds:*

- (i) B is a right double extension.
- (ii) there are $x_1, x_2 \in B_1$ such that
 - (iia) B has a quadratic relation involving only x_1, x_2 , and
 - (iib) $B/(x_1, x_2)$ is regular of dimension 2.

Then B is a double extension of a regular subalgebra of dimension 2.

Proof. (a) By Lemma 2.4 A is regular of dimension 2. Since B is a right double extension, hypotheses (i,ia,ib,iii) of Lemma 2.6 hold. The assertion follows from Lemma 2.7.

(b) We would like to check (i,ii,iii) of Lemma 2.5. (i) is clear. (iii) follows from the fact that $B/(x_1, x_2)$ is regular of dimension 2. Since $B/(x_1, x_2)$ has only one relation, all other relations are $f_i = 0$ with $f_i \in V \otimes W + W \otimes V$. Thus we verified (ii) of Lemma 2.5. By Lemma 2.5, B is a double extension. \square

Proof of Proposition 0.3. If B is a double extension of A , by [28, Proposition 1.14], there is an algebra homomorphism $B \rightarrow B/(A_{\geq 1})$ and $B/(A_{\geq 1})$ is isomorphic to $k\langle y_1, y_2 \rangle / (y_2 y_1 - p_{12} y_1 y_2 - p_{11} y_1^2)$. Since $p_{12} \neq 0$, $B/(A_{\geq 1})$ is regular of dimension 2. This is one implication. The other implication is Theorem 2.8. \square

To conclude this section we prove Theorem 0.2.

Theorem 2.9. *Suppose that B is a noetherian regular algebra of type (14641) and that B has a \mathbb{Z}^2 -grading such that $B_1 = B_{01} \oplus B_{10}$ with both B_{01} and B_{10} nonzero. Then B is either a double extension or an Ore extension $A[x; \sigma]$ for some regular algebra A of dimension three.*

Proof. By [4, Theorem 3.9], B is a domain. Hence it is a quantum polynomial ring in the sense of [7, Definition 1.12].

By [7, Proposition 3.5], both subalgebras $B_{\mathbb{Z} \otimes 0}$ and $B_{0 \times \mathbb{Z}}$ are Koszul noetherian regular domains of dimension strictly smaller than four. If $\dim B_{10} = 3$ and $\dim B_{01} = 1$, then $A := B_{\mathbb{Z} \otimes 0}$ is regular of dimension three and $C := B_{0 \times \mathbb{Z}}$ is regular of dimension 1. It is straightforward to show that there is an exact sequence of algebras

$$0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$$

satisfying Definition 1.1(a,b,c). Thus B is 1-extension of A . By Lemma 1.2(c), $B = A[x; \sigma, \delta]$. Since B is \mathbb{Z}^2 -graded, $\delta = 0$.

If $\dim B_{10} = 1$ and $\dim B_{01} = 3$, a similar proof works.

It remains to consider $\dim B_{10} = \dim B_{01} = 2$. By [7, Proposition 3.5], both $B_{\mathbb{Z} \otimes 0}$ and $B_{0 \times \mathbb{Z}}$ are Koszul regular algebras of dimension 2 and $B_{\mathbb{Z} \otimes 0} \cong B/((B_{0 \times \mathbb{Z}})_{\geq 1})$. So we are in the situation of Theorem 2.8(ii) and hence B is a double extension. \square

3. SYSTEM C

The goal of Sections 3 and 4 is to classify regular domains of dimension four of the form $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ up to isomorphism, or equivalently, to classify (P, σ) up to some equivalence relation. This is the first step toward a more complete (but not finished) classification of $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$. As explained in the introduction, we are interested in double extensions that are not iterated Ore extensions.

Since the base field k is algebraically closed, A is isomorphic to $k_Q[x_1, x_2]$ (see Lemma 2.4), which is either $k_q[x_1, x_2]$ with the relation $x_2 x_1 = q x_1 x_2$ (in this case $Q = (q, 0)$) or $k_J[x_1, x_2]$ with the relation $x_2 x_1 = x_1 x_2 + x_1^2$ (in this case $Q = J = (1, 1)$). To state some results uniformly we write A as $k_Q[x_1, x_2]$ where, by definition, $Q = (q_{12}, q_{11})$ and $k_Q[x_1, x_2] = k\langle x_1, x_2 \rangle / (x_2 x_1 = q_{11} x_1^2 + q_{12} x_1 x_2)$. But in the computation we will set Q to be either $(1, 1)$ or $(0, q)$.

Fix an A as in the last paragraph. Let $\sigma : A \rightarrow M_2(A)$ be a graded algebra homomorphism. Write

$$(E3.0.1) \quad \sigma_{ij}(x_s) = \sum_{t=1}^2 a_{ijst} x_t$$

for all $i, j, s = 1, 2$ and where $a_{ijst} \in k$.

Using (E3.0.1) we can re-write the relation (R2) of the algebra $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ as follows (note that in this case $\delta = 0$). Setting $r = x_1$ and x_2 in (R2), we have the following four relations.

$$(MR11) \quad \begin{aligned} y_1 x_1 &= \sigma_{11}(x_1) y_1 + \sigma_{12}(x_1) y_2 \\ &= a_{1111} x_1 y_1 + a_{1112} x_2 y_1 + a_{1211} x_1 y_2 + a_{1212} x_2 y_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$(MR12) \quad \begin{aligned} y_1 x_2 &= \sigma_{11}(x_2) y_1 + \sigma_{12}(x_2) y_2 \\ &= a_{1121} x_1 y_1 + a_{1122} x_2 y_1 + a_{1221} x_1 y_2 + a_{1222} x_2 y_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$(MR21) \quad \begin{aligned} y_2 x_1 &= \sigma_{21}(x_1) y_1 + \sigma_{22}(x_1) y_2 \\ &= a_{2111} x_1 y_1 + a_{2112} x_2 y_1 + a_{2211} x_1 y_2 + a_{2212} x_2 y_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$(MR22) \quad \begin{aligned} y_2 x_2 &= \sigma_{21}(x_2) y_1 + \sigma_{22}(x_2) y_2 \\ &= a_{2121} x_1 y_1 + a_{2122} x_2 y_1 + a_{2221} x_1 y_2 + a_{2222} x_2 y_2 \end{aligned}$$

We call the above 4 relations *mixing relations* between x_i and y_i . The double extension $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ also has two non-mixing relations:

$$(NRx) \quad x_2 x_1 = q_{12} x_1 x_2 + q_{11} x_1^2$$

$$(NRY) \quad y_2 y_1 = p_{12} y_1 y_2 + p_{11} y_1^2$$

Let Σ_{ij} be the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{ij11} & a_{ij12} \\ a_{ij21} & a_{ij22} \end{pmatrix}$$

and let

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{11} & \Sigma_{12} \\ \Sigma_{21} & \Sigma_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1111} & a_{1112} & a_{1211} & a_{1212} \\ a_{1121} & a_{1122} & a_{1221} & a_{1222} \\ a_{2111} & a_{2112} & a_{2211} & a_{2212} \\ a_{2121} & a_{2122} & a_{2221} & a_{2222} \end{pmatrix}.$$

One easily sees that σ is invertible if and only if the matrix Σ is invertible. Since we assume that σ is a graded algebra homomorphism, σ is uniquely determined by Σ . Another matrix closed related to Σ is the following. Let M_{ij} be the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11ij} & a_{12ij} \\ a_{21ij} & a_{22ij} \end{pmatrix}$$

and let

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} M_{11} & M_{12} \\ M_{21} & M_{22} \end{pmatrix}.$$

The matrix M is obtained by re-arranging the entries of Σ . Sometimes it is convenient to use M instead of Σ when we make linear transformation of $\{y_1, y_2\}$. An easy linear algebra exercise shows that Σ is invertible if and only if M is invertible.

If we change the basis $\{x_1, x_2\}$ to $x'_1 = b_{11}x_1 + b_{12}x_2, x'_2 = b_{21}x_1 + b_{22}x_2$, then the matrix Σ is changed to a new Σ . The following lemma is clear.

Lemma 3.1. *Let $X = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$ and $Y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}$.*

(a) *The 4 mixing relations (MR11)-(MR22) can be written as*

$$y_i X = y_i \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \Sigma_{i1} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 y_1 \\ x_2 y_1 \end{pmatrix} + \Sigma_{i2} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 y_2 \\ x_2 y_2 \end{pmatrix} = \Sigma_{i1} X y_1 + \Sigma_{i2} X y_2$$

for $i = 1, 2$.

(b) *If X is changed to $X' = BX$ where $B = (b_{ij})_{2 \times 2}$ is an invertible matrix, then Σ' is equal to $\begin{pmatrix} B & 0 \\ 0 & B \end{pmatrix} \Sigma \begin{pmatrix} B^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & B^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$.*

(c) *Suppose $Q = (1, 0)$ (in this case the algebra A is the commutative ring $k[x_1, x_2]$). After a linear transformation of X , we may assume either that $a_{1212} = a_{1221} = 0$ or that $a_{1212} = 0, a_{1221} = 1$.*

(d) *The 4 mixing relations can also be written as*

$$Y x_i = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} x_i = M_{i1} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 y_1 \\ x_1 y_2 \end{pmatrix} + M_{i2} \begin{pmatrix} x_2 y_1 \\ x_2 y_2 \end{pmatrix} = M_{i1} x_1 Y + M_{i2} x_2 Y$$

for $i = 1, 2$.

(e) *If Y is changed to $Y' = BY$ where $B = (b_{ij})_{2 \times 2}$ is an invertible matrix, then M' is equal to $\begin{pmatrix} B & 0 \\ 0 & B \end{pmatrix} M \begin{pmatrix} B^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & B^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$.*

Since σ is an algebra homomorphism, we have, for i, j, f, g ,

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{ij}(x_f x_g) &= \sum_{p=1}^2 \sigma_{ip}(x_f) \sigma_{pj}(x_g) \\ &= \sum_{p,s,t=1}^2 (a_{ipfs} x_s) (a_{pjgt} x_t) = \sum_{p,s,t=1}^2 (a_{ipfs} a_{pjgt}) x_s x_t \\ &= \left(\sum_{p=1}^2 a_{ipf1} a_{pjg1} \right) x_1^2 + \left(\sum_p a_{ipf1} a_{pjg2} \right) x_1 x_2 \\ &\quad + \left(\sum_p a_{ipf2} a_{pjg1} \right) x_2 x_1 + \left(\sum_p a_{ipf2} a_{pjg2} \right) x_2^2 \end{aligned}$$

Using the relation $x_2 x_1 = q_{11} x_1^2 + q_{12} x_1 x_2$ in A , we obtain

(E3.1.1)

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{ij}(x_f x_g) &= [(a_{i1f1} a_{1jg1} + a_{i2f1} a_{2jg1}) + q_{11} (a_{i1f2} a_{1jg1} + a_{i2f2} a_{2jg1})] x_1^2 \\ &\quad + [(a_{i1f1} a_{1jg2} + a_{i2f1} a_{2jg2}) + q_{12} (a_{i1f2} a_{1jg1} + a_{i2f2} a_{2jg1})] x_1 x_2 \\ &\quad + (a_{i1f2} a_{1jg2} + a_{i2f2} a_{2jg2}) x_2^2. \end{aligned}$$

Since $x_2 x_1 = q_{11} x_1^2 + q_{12} x_1 x_2$ and since each σ_{ij} is a k -linear map,

(E3.1.2)

$$\sigma_{ij}(x_2 x_1) = q_{11} \sigma_{ij}(x_1 x_1) + q_{12} \sigma_{ij}(x_1 x_2)$$

for all $i, j = 1, 2$. Now by (E3.1.1) we can express the left-hand and the right-hand sides of (E3.1.2) as polynomials of x_1 and x_2 . By comparing coefficients of x_1^2 ,

x_1x_2 and x_2^2 respectively, we obtain the following identities. The coefficients of x_1^2 of (E3.1.2) give rise to a constraint between coefficients

$$\begin{aligned} (C1ij) \quad & (a_{i121}a_{1j11} + a_{i221}a_{2j11}) + q_{11}(a_{i122}a_{1j11} + a_{i222}a_{2j11}) \\ & = q_{11}[(a_{i111}a_{1j11} + a_{i211}a_{2j11}) + q_{11}(a_{i112}a_{1j11} + a_{i212}a_{2j11})] \\ & \quad + q_{12}[(a_{i111}a_{1j21} + a_{i211}a_{2j21}) + q_{11}(a_{i112}a_{1j21} + a_{i212}a_{2j21})]. \end{aligned}$$

The letter C in (C1ij) stands for the Constraints on the Coefficients. The coefficients of x_1x_2 of (E3.1.2) give rise to

$$\begin{aligned} (C2ij) \quad & (a_{i121}a_{1j12} + a_{i221}a_{2j12}) + q_{12}(a_{i122}a_{1j11} + a_{i222}a_{2j11}) \\ & = q_{11}[(a_{i111}a_{1j12} + a_{i211}a_{2j12}) + q_{12}(a_{i112}a_{1j11} + a_{i212}a_{2j11})] \\ & \quad + q_{12}[(a_{i111}a_{1j22} + a_{i211}a_{2j22}) + q_{12}(a_{i112}a_{1j21} + a_{i212}a_{2j21})]. \end{aligned}$$

The coefficients of x_2^2 of (E3.1.2) gave rise to

$$\begin{aligned} (C3ij) \quad & (a_{i122}a_{1j12} + a_{i222}a_{2j12}) \\ & = q_{11}(a_{i112}a_{1j12} + a_{i212}a_{2j12}) + q_{12}(a_{i112}a_{1j22} + a_{i212}a_{2j22}). \end{aligned}$$

Next we apply (R3.1), (R3.2) and (R3.3) to the elements $r = x_1$ and x_2 , and obtain more relations between a_{ijkl} . For $i, f, g, s, t = 1, 2$,

$$\begin{aligned} (E3.1.3) \quad \sigma_{fg}(\sigma_{st}(x_i)) &= \sigma_{fg}\left(\sum_{w=1}^2 a_{stiw}x_w\right) = \sum_{w=1}^2 a_{stiw}\sigma_{fg}(x_w) \\ &= \sum_{w=1}^2 a_{stiw} \sum_{j=1}^2 a_{fgwj}x_j = \sum_{j=1}^2 (a_{sti1}a_{fg1j} + a_{sti2}a_{fg2j})x_j \\ &= (a_{sti1}a_{fg11} + a_{sti2}a_{fg21})x_1 + (a_{sti1}a_{fg12} + a_{sti2}a_{fg22})x_2. \end{aligned}$$

Recall that $P = (p_{12}, p_{11})$; and we will set $P = (1, 1)$ or $(p, 0)$ when we do the computation later. Using (E3.1.3) relations (R3.1)-(R3.3) (when applied to x_i) are equivalent to the following constraints on coefficients:

$$\begin{aligned} (C4ij) \quad & (a_{11i1}a_{211j} + a_{11i2}a_{212j}) + p_{11}(a_{11i1}a_{221j} + a_{11i2}a_{222j}) \\ & = p_{11}(a_{11i1}a_{111j} + a_{11i2}a_{112j}) + p_{11}^2(a_{11i1}a_{121j} + a_{11i2}a_{122j}) \\ & \quad + p_{12}(a_{21i1}a_{111j} + a_{21i2}a_{112j}) + p_{11}p_{12}(a_{21i1}a_{121j} + a_{21i2}a_{122j}). \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (C5ij) \quad & (a_{12i1}a_{211j} + a_{12i2}a_{212j}) + p_{12}(a_{11i1}a_{221j} + a_{11i2}a_{222j}) \\ & = p_{11}(a_{12i1}a_{111j} + a_{12i2}a_{112j}) + p_{11}p_{12}(a_{11i1}a_{121j} + a_{11i2}a_{122j}) \\ & \quad + p_{12}(a_{22i1}a_{111j} + a_{22i2}a_{112j}) + p_{12}^2(a_{21i1}a_{121j} + a_{21i2}a_{122j}). \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (C6ij) \quad & (a_{12i1}a_{221j} + a_{12i2}a_{222j}) \\ & = p_{11}(a_{12i1}a_{121j} + a_{12i2}a_{122j}) + p_{12}(a_{22i1}a_{121j} + a_{22i2}a_{122j}). \end{aligned}$$

Note that there is a symmetry between the first three C -constraints ((C1ij), (C2ij), (C3ij)) and the last three C -constraints ((C4ij), (C5ij), (C6ij)). By [28, Proposition 1.11], if the coefficients $\{a_{ijfg}\}$ satisfy the six C -constraints, then six quadratic relations (MR11)-(MR22), (NRx) and (NRy) define a double extension $(k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$. By [28, Lemma 1.9], σ must be invertible, or equivalently, the matrix Σ must be invertible. So there is another constraint in the coefficients:

$\det \Sigma \neq 0$. By **System C** we mean the system of equations (C1ij), (C2ij), (C3ij), (C4ij), (C5ij) and (C6ij) together with $\det \Sigma \neq 0$. We first fix $P = (p_{12}, p_{11})$ and $Q = (q_{12}, q_{11})$. A **solution to System C** or **C-solution** is a matrix Σ with entries a_{ijst} satisfying System C.

Next we introduce some equivalence relations between C-solutions.

Lemma 3.2. *Let Σ be a C-solution and let $B = (k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ where σ is determined by Σ . Let $0 \neq h \in k$*

- (a) *B is a \mathbb{Z}^2 -graded algebra. Let $\gamma : x_i \rightarrow x_i, y_i \rightarrow hy_i$. Then γ extends to a graded automorphism of B .*
- (b) *$h\Sigma$ is a C-solution. Let σ' be the algebra automorphism determined by $h\Sigma$. Then $B' := (k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma']$ is a graded twist of B in the sense of [26].*

Proof. (a) The assertion is clear.

(b) Since relations (Csij) are homogeneous and since $\det(h\Sigma) = h^4 \det \Sigma$, Σ is a C-solution if and only if $h\Sigma$ is. The second assertion can be verified by working on the relations of the twist B^γ . \square

In general the algebra B and its twist B^γ are not isomorphic as algebras. However these algebras have many common properties since the category of graded B -modules is equivalent to the category of graded B^γ -modules (see [26]).

Definition 3.3. We say Σ and Σ' are *twist equivalent* if $\Sigma' = h\Sigma$ for some $0 \neq h \in k$. In this case we say Σ is a *twist* of Σ' . It is easy to see that twist equivalence is an equivalence relation. By Lemma 3.2(b), we can replace Σ by its twists (without changing Q and P) to obtain another double extension.

We say (Σ, Q, P) and (Σ', Q', P') are *linear equivalent* if there is a graded algebra isomorphism from $(k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ to $(k_{Q'}[x'_1, x'_2])_{P'}[y'_1, y'_2; \sigma']$ mapping $kx_1 + kx_2 \rightarrow kx'_1 + kx'_2$ and $ky_1 + ky_2 \rightarrow ky'_1 + ky'_2$. Using this isomorphism we can pull back x'_i and y'_i to the algebra $(k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$; then we can assume that $\{x'_1, x'_2\}$ (respectively, $\{y'_1, y'_2\}$) is another basis of $\{x_1, x_2\}$ (respectively, $\{y_1, y_2\}$). In case $Q = Q'$ and $P = P'$, then we just say that Σ and Σ' are *linear equivalent*. We say (Σ, Q, P) and (Σ', Q', P') are *equivalent* if (Σ, Q, P) and $(h\Sigma', Q', P')$ are linear equivalent for some $0 \neq h \in k$.

The following lemma is clear.

Lemma 3.4. (a) *Twist equivalence is an equivalence relation.*
 (b) *Linear equivalence is an equivalence relation.*
 (c) *Equivalence between (Σ, Q, P) and (Σ', Q', P') defined above is an equivalence relation.*

Since our goal is to classify $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ up to isomorphism (or even up to twist), we will classify Σ up to (linear) equivalence. Here are the strategies before we move into complicated computations in the next section:

Strategies:

Strategy 1. We will use mathematical software Maple as much as possible to reduce the length of the computations. The process of solving the System C by Maple and the corresponding codes will be omitted since the codes are very simple. Not all solutions will be listed here since the list of the solutions to System C is

still large. We need to do more reductions in next two steps to achieve our final solution. Even then we will see a large number of solutions.

Strategy 2. We will try not to analyze iterated Ore extensions. In many cases, when a C-solution gives rise to an iterated Ore extension, we will stop. To test when a Σ gives rise to an iterated Ore extension $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$ we will mainly use Proposition 3.5 below. Most of such solutions will not be listed; but a few examples will be given in subsection 4.1.

Strategy 3. Further reductions will be done by using equivalence relations between (Σ, Q, P) and (Σ', Q', P') . There is no unique way of doing this since linear equivalence is dependent on particular choices of Q and P . This is one of the reason we break the computation into four cases in the next four subsections according to the form of P .

Proposition 3.5. *Let B be a double extension $(k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$.*

- (a) *If $\Sigma_{12} = 0$, then B is an iterated Ore extension.*
- (b) *If $\Sigma_{21} = 0$ and $p_{11} = 0$, then B is an iterated Ore extension.*

Proof. (a) If $\Sigma_{12} = 0$, then $\sigma_{12} = 0$. Hence the first half of the relation (R1) becomes

$$y_1 r = \sigma_{11}(r)y_1 + \delta_1(r)$$

for all $r \in A := k_Q[x_1, x_2]$. It is easy to check that σ_{11} is an automorphism of A and δ_1 is a σ -derivation of A . Therefore the subalgebra generated by x_1, x_2, y_1 is an Ore extension of A . The second half of (R1) together with (R1) shows that B is an Ore extension of $A[y_1; \sigma_{11}, \delta_1]$. The assertion follows.

(b) Since $p_{11} = 0$, we switch y_1 and y_2 without changing the form of (R1), $\Sigma_{21} = 0$ becomes $\Sigma_{12} = 0$. The assertion follows from (a). Note that if $p_{11} \neq 0$, then we can not switch y_1 and y_2 to keep the form of (R1). \square

The following proposition is a consequence of above.

Proposition 3.6. *Let B be a trimmed double extension $(k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ where σ is determined by the matrix Σ .*

- (a) *Considering $A' := k_P[y_1, y_2]$ as the subring and $\{x_1, x_2\}$ is the set of generators over A' , B is a double extension of $(k_P[y_1, y_2])_Q[x_1, x_2; \alpha]$ where α is determined by the matrix M^{-1} .*
- (b) *If $M_{12} = 0$, then B is an iterated Ore extension of $k_P[y_1, y_2]$.*
- (c) *If $M_{21} = 0$ and $q_{11} = 0$, then B is an iterated Ore extension of $k_P[y_1, y_2]$.*

Proof. (a) We need to switch the roles played by x_i and y_i . Four mixing relations can be written as

$$(E3.6.1) \quad \begin{pmatrix} y_1 x_1 \\ y_2 x_1 \\ y_1 x_2 \\ y_2 x_2 \end{pmatrix} = M \begin{pmatrix} x_1 y_1 \\ x_1 y_2 \\ x_2 y_1 \\ x_2 y_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

This implies that

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 y_1 \\ x_1 y_2 \\ x_2 y_1 \\ x_2 y_2 \end{pmatrix} = M^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 x_1 \\ y_2 x_1 \\ y_1 x_2 \\ y_2 x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Therefore B is the double extension $(k_P[y_1, y_2])_Q[x_1, x_2; \alpha]$ where α is determined by the matrix M^{-1} .

(b,c) By part (a), the matrix M^{-1} plays the role of Σ -matrix (if we switch x_i with y_i). Since $M_{12} = 0$ (respectively, $M_{21} = 0$) if and only if $(M^{-1})_{12} = 0$ (respectively, $(M^{-1})_{21} = 0$), the assertions follows from Proposition 3.5(a,b). \square

The matrix M also appears in a slightly different setting, see the next proposition. For any $P = (p_{12}, p_{11})$. Let P° denote the set $(p_{12}^{-1}, -p_{12}^{-1}p_{11})$.

Proposition 3.7. *The opposite ring of $B := (k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ is a double extension $(k_{P^\circ}[y_1, y_2])_{Q^\circ}[x_1, x_2; \xi]$ where ξ is determined by the matrix M .*

Proof. Let \star be the multiplication of the opposite ring B^{op} . The relation

$$y_2 y_1 = p_{12} y_1 y_2 + p_{11} y_1^2$$

in B implies the relation

$$y_2 \star y_1 = p_{12}^{-1} y_1 \star y_2 + (-p_{12}^{-1} p_{11}) y_1^2$$

in B^{op} . The same is true for the relation between x_1 and x_2 . The relations E3.6.1 in B implies the following relations in B^{op}

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \star y_1 \\ x_1 \star y_2 \\ x_2 \star y_1 \\ x_2 \star y_2 \end{pmatrix} = M \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \star x_1 \\ y_2 \star x_1 \\ y_1 \star x_2 \\ y_2 \star x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Recall that x_i and y_i are switched in the double extension $(k_{P^\circ}[y_1, y_2])_{Q^\circ}[x_1, x_2; \xi]$. So the matrix M plays the role of Σ -matrix for the homomorphism ξ . \square

4. A CLASSIFICATION OF $\{\Sigma, P, Q\}$

Now we start our classification.

4.1. Case one: $P = (1, 1)$. In this subsection we classify Σ when $P = (1, 1)$. We consider the following subcases.

Subcase 4.1.1: $Q = (1, 1)$. The System C is solved by Maple to give two solutions in this case.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Solution one: } \Sigma &= \begin{pmatrix} f & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ g & f & 0 & 0 \\ h & 0 & f & 0 \\ m & h & g & f \end{pmatrix} \text{ where } f \neq 0. \\ \text{Solution two: } \Sigma &= \begin{pmatrix} f & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ g & f & 0 & 0 \\ -f^2/g & 0 & f & 0 \\ h & -f(f-m+g)/g & m & f \end{pmatrix} \text{ where } fg \neq 0. \end{aligned}$$

In both solutions we have $\Sigma_{12} = 0$. By Proposition 3.5(a), these Σ will produce iterated Ore extensions. By Strategy 2, we will not study these algebras further in this paper.

Subcase 4.1.2: $Q = (q, 0)$ where $q \neq 0, \pm 1$. The System C is solved by Maple to give one solution, which is $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} f & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & g & 0 & 0 \\ h & 0 & f & 0 \\ 0 & m & 0 & g \end{pmatrix}$ where $fg \neq 0$. Again since $\Sigma_{12} = 0$, by Proposition 3.5, we will only obtain an iterated Ore extension.

Subcase 4.1.3: $Q = (-1, 0)$. There are two C-solutions. One is the same as the solution in Subcase 4.1.2; so it gives rise to an iterated Ore extension. The other is $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & f & 0 & 0 \\ g & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & fh/g & 0 & f \\ h & 0 & g & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ where $fg \neq 0$. Again in this case we only obtain an iterated Ore extension. Up to this point we only used Strategies 1 and 2.

Subcase 4.1.4: $Q = (1, 0)$. The System C is solved by Maple to give 15 solutions, 13 of which has the property $\Sigma_{12} = 0$. To save the space we will not list these solutions. Next we use Strategy 3.

Since $Q = (1, 0)$, we can make linear transformation of $\{x_1, x_2\}$. By Lemma 3.1(c) we may further assume that either $a_{1212} = a_{1221} = 0$ or $a_{1212} = 0, a_{1221} = 1$.

If $a_{1212} = 0$ and $a_{1221} = 0$, the System C is solved by Maple to give 15 solutions, all of which have the property that $\Sigma_{12} = 0$. So we only consider the case when $a_{1212} = 0$ and $a_{1221} = 1$. The the System C is solved to give a single solution:

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} f & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ g & f & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & f & 0 \\ m & -2f & -g-1 & f \end{pmatrix} \text{ or equivalently } \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} f & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ g & f & f & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & f & 0 \\ m & -2f & -g-f & f \end{pmatrix}. \text{ Up}$$

to a twist equivalence, we may assume that $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ g & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ m & -2 & -g-1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Now we

will make linear transformation of $Y = (y_1, y_2)^T$. It is a bit easier to see this by using

matrix M . The last Σ is equivalent to $M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ g & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ m & -g-1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Since $P =$

$(1, 1)$, we can change Y to $Y' = BY$ where $B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ g & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. By doing so the structure

of the relations will not change, but the matrix M becomes $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ m' & -1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

where $m' = m + g + g^2$. Let g denote the new m' . We have $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ g & -2 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Now we make another linear transformation $X' = BX$ where $B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ g/2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, then

we have $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. This is the only possible Σ up to (linear and twist) equivalence. Therefore up to linear equivalence, we have the first interesting case

Algebra \mathbb{A} : $\Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $M = h \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ where $h \neq 0$;

and $P = (1, 1)$, $Q = (1, 0)$. In the rest of the section let h be a nonzero scalar in k . We can easily write down the relations of the algebra \mathbb{A} from $\{\Sigma, P, Q\}$. The matrix Σ gives us the four mixing relations between x_i and y_i . The Q tells us the relation between x_1 and x_2 and the P tells us the relation between y_1 and y_2 . Here are the six quadratic relations of the algebra \mathbb{A} :

$$\begin{aligned} x_2x_1 &= x_1x_2 \\ y_2y_1 &= y_1y_2 + y_1^2 \\ y_1x_1 &= x_1y_1 \\ y_1x_2 &= x_2y_1 + x_1y_2 \\ y_2x_1 &= x_1y_2 \\ y_2x_2 &= -2x_2y_1 - x_1y_2 + x_2y_2. \end{aligned}$$

All algebras in this section are generated by x_1, x_2, y_1 and y_2 . To save space, we will not write down explicitly the relations of other algebras except for the algebra \mathbb{Z} at the end of this section.

By Proposition 3.6(a) any double extension $(k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ is isomorphic to $(k_P[y_1, y_2])_Q[x_1, x_2; \alpha]$ where α is determined by the matrix M^{-1} . In the case of the algebra \mathbb{A} , we have $M_{12} = 0$. By Proposition 3.6(b) \mathbb{A} is an iterated Ore extension of $k_P[y_1, y_2]$. However, there are possible δ, τ such that $(k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$ is not an iterated Ore extension of any regular algebra of dimension 2. This is the reason the algebra \mathbb{A} is not deleted from our 26 families.

The point-scheme of the algebra \mathbb{A} can be computed. We see that the dimension of the point-scheme is 1 in this case and details are omitted. Recall from [28, Section 3] that the determinant of σ is defined to be

$$\det \sigma = -p_{11}\sigma_{12}\sigma_{11} + \sigma_{22}\sigma_{11} - p_{12}\sigma_{12}\sigma_{21}$$

which is an algebra automorphism of $k_Q[x_1, x_2]$. For the algebra \mathbb{A} we have

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

This is the end of classification of $\{\Sigma, Q\}$ when $P = (1, 1)$.

4.2. Case two: $P = (p, 0)$ where $p \neq \pm 1$. We consider four subcases as in Case one. Some arguments are similar to the ones given in Case (section 4.1) one above, so most of the details will be omitted.

Subcase 4.2.1: $Q = (1, 1)$. There is only one C-solution in which $\Sigma_{12} = 0$. By Proposition 3.5(a) we only get an iterated Ore extension.

Subcase 4.2.2: $Q = (q, 0)$ where $q \neq \pm 1$. The proof of the following lemma is based on tedious computation and can be verified by Maple very quickly.

Lemma 4.1. *Suppose $P = (p, 0)$ and $Q = (q, 0)$ where $p \neq \pm 1$ and $q \neq \pm 1$. Suppose Σ is a C-solution (in particular $\det \Sigma \neq 0$).*

- (a) *If $p \neq \pm i, \xi_3, \xi_3^2$ where i is the primitive 4th root of 1 and ξ_3 is the primitive 3rd root of 1, then either $\Sigma_{12} = 0$ or $\Sigma_{21} = 0$.*
- (b) *Suppose $\Sigma_{12} \neq 0$ and $\Sigma_{21} \neq 0$.*
 - (i) *If $p^2 = -1$ (or $p = \pm i$), then either $q = p$ or $q = p^{-1}$.*
 - (ii) *If $p = \xi_3$ or ξ_3^2 , then either $q = p$ or $q = p^{-1}$.*
 - (iii) *After exchanging x_1 and x_2 , we may assume that $q = p$.*

The next lemma follows from Lemma 3.1.

Lemma 4.2. *We fix $P = (p, 0)$ and $Q = (q, 0)$. Let Σ be a C-solution with $\Sigma_{ij} = (a_{ijst})_{2 \times 2}$.*

- (a) *If the basis $\{x_1, x_2\}$ is changed to $\{x_1, ax_2\}$, then the entry a_{ijst} of Σ is changed to $a^{(s-t)/2} a_{ijst}$.*
- (b) *If the basis $\{y_1, y_2\}$ is changed to $\{y_1, by_2\}$, then the entry a_{ijst} of Σ is changed to $b^{(i-j)/2} a_{ijst}$.*
- (c) *If $a_{1211} \neq 0$, after a linear transformation of $\{y_1, y_2\}$, we may assume $a_{1211} = 1$.*
- (d) *If $a_{1221} \neq 0$, after a linear transformation of $\{x_1, x_2\}$ (or $\{y_1, y_2\}$), we may assume $a_{1221} = 1$.*

According to Lemma 4.2 we may assume that $a_{1211} = 0$, or 1 and $a_{1221} = 0$, or 1. From now on we will only consider those solutions with $\Sigma_{12} \neq 0$. (If $\Sigma_{12} = 0$, then use Proposition 3.5(a).) We may further assume that the first column of Σ_{12} is nonzero. If the second column is nonzero, then by switch x_1 with x_2 we obtain that the first column of Σ_{12} is nonzero. Hence there are three cases to consider (up to a linear equivalence):

Case (i): $a_{1211} = 1, a_{1221} = 0$. The Maple gives no C-solution.

Case (ii): $a_{1211} = 0, a_{1221} = 1$. The Maple gives two C-solutions. One of which has $\Sigma_{21} = 0$, so we omit this one by Proposition 3.5(b). The other is

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -fg & 0 & 0 \\ g & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ with } fg \neq 0, \text{ and } p = q \text{ and } p^2 = -1. \text{ Using Lemma 4.2}$$

above Σ is linearly equivalent to

$$\text{Algebra } \mathbb{B}: \Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } M = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; \text{ and } P =$$

$(p, 0) = Q$ and $p^2 = -1$.

The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = ph^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Recall that P° denotes the set $(p_{12}^{-1}, -p_{12}^{-1}p_{11})$ where $P = (p_{12}, p_{11})$.

Definition 4.3. Let $(k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ and $(k_{Q'}[x_1, x_2])_{P'}[y_1, y_2; \sigma']$ be two double extensions.

- (a) Two double extensions are called Σ - M -dual if the matrix $\{M, Q^\circ, P^\circ\}$ is equivalent to $\{\Sigma', P', Q'\}$ in the sense of Definition 3.3.
- (b) A double extension is called Σ - M -selfdual if $\{M, Q^\circ, P^\circ\}$ is equivalent to $\{\Sigma, P, Q\}$ in the sense of Definition 3.3.

By Proposition 3.7, if $(k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ and $(k_{Q'}[x_1, x_2])_{P'}[y_1, y_2; \sigma']$ are Σ - M -dual, then

$$(k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]^\gamma \cong ((k_{Q'}[x_1, x_2])_{P'}[y_1, y_2; \sigma'])^{op}$$

for some automorphism twist γ . In particular, if $(k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ is Σ - M -selfdual then

$$(k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]^\gamma \cong (k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]^{op}$$

for some γ .

It is easy to verify that the algebra \mathbb{B} is Σ - M -selfdual. Also the algebra \mathbb{B} contains two cases with the same matrix Σ , namely, $p = i$ and $p = -i$.

Case (iii): $a_{1211} = 1, a_{1221} = 1$. There are four C-solutions such that $\Sigma_{21} \neq 0$. All four solutions are linearly equivalent in the sense of Definition 3.3. Here we use the linear equivalences of the form $(\Sigma, (p, 0), (q, 0)) \sim (\Sigma', (p', 0), (q', 0))$ where p' is p or p^{-1} and q' is q or q^{-1} . So up to linear equivalences, we only have one C-solution:

$$\text{Algebra } \mathbb{C}: \Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} -1 & p^2 & 1 & -p \\ -p & 1 & 1 & -p \\ -p & -2p^2 & p & -p \\ -p & p^2 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } M = h \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & p^2 & -p \\ -p & p & -2p^2 & -p \\ -p & 1 & 1 & -p \\ -p & 1 & p^2 & -1 \end{pmatrix};$$

and $P = (p, 0) = Q$ and $p^2 + p + 1 = 0$.

The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = -3h^2 \begin{pmatrix} p & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

It is easy to check that the algebra \mathbb{C} is Σ - M -selfdual. Of course the equation $p^2 + p + 1 = 0$ has two solutions, and we may think the algebra \mathbb{C} contains two different cases. This is the end of **Subcase 4.2.2**.

Subcase 4.2.3: $Q = (-1, 0)$. Similar to the argument given in **Subcase 4.2.2** we need consider the following three cases: $(a_{1211}, a_{1221}) = (1, 0)$ or $(a_{1211}, a_{1221}) = (0, 1)$ or $(a_{1211}, a_{1221}) = (1, 1)$.

Case (i) $a_{1211} = 1, a_{1221} = 0$. C-solutions have $\Sigma_{21} = 0$. So we stop here.

Case (ii): $a_{1211} = 0, a_{1221} = 1$. Only one C-solution has the property $\Sigma_{21} \neq 0$.

$$\text{Algebra } \mathbb{D}: \Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} -p & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -p^2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & p & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } M = h \begin{pmatrix} -p & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & p & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -p^2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}; P =$$

$(p, 0)$ where p is a general parameter which could be ± 1 and $Q = (-1, 0)$.

The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = -p^2 h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Case (iii): $a_{1211} = 1, a_{1221} = 1$. There are two C-solutions such that $\Sigma_{21} \neq 0$.

$$\text{Algebra } \mathbb{E}: \Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } M = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; P = (p, 0)$$

where $p^2 = -1$ and $Q = (-1, 0)$.

The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = 2ph^2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\text{Algebra } \mathbb{F}: \Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -p & 1 & -1 \\ -p & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -p & p & p & 1 \\ -p & -p & 1 & -p \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } M = h \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & -p & -1 \\ -p & p & p & 1 \\ -p & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -p & 1 & -p & -p \end{pmatrix}; P =$$

$(p, 0)$ where $p^2 = -1$ and $Q = (-1, 0)$.

The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = -2ph^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Subcase 4.2.4: $Q = (1, 0)$. We can make linear transformations of X such that Σ_{12} is one of the standard forms: $\Sigma_{12} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & 0 \\ 0 & a_1 \end{pmatrix}$ or $\Sigma_{12} = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 1 & a \end{pmatrix}$. In particular we may assume either $(a_{1212}, a_{1221}) = (0, 0)$ or $(a_{1212}, a_{1221}) = (0, 1)$.

Case (i): $(a_{1212}, a_{1221}) = (0, 0)$. There is no C-solution with $\Sigma_{21} \neq 0$.

Case (ii): $(a_{1212}, a_{1221}) = (0, 1)$. There is only one C-solution such that $\Sigma_{21} \neq 0$.

$$\text{Algebra } \mathbb{G}: \Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} p & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ p & p^2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & p & 0 \\ f & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } M = h \begin{pmatrix} p & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & p & 0 & 0 \\ p & 1 & p^2 & 0 \\ f & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ with } f \neq 0;$$

$P = (p, 0)$ where p is general and $Q = (1, 0)$.

The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = p^2 h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

This is the end of Subsection 4.2 where $P = (p, 0)$ and $p \neq 0, \pm 1$.

4.3. Case three: $P = (-1, 0)$. Following steps before we consider four subcases.

Subcase 4.3.1: $Q = (1, 1)$. Up to linear equivalence, the System C has one solution with $\Sigma_{12} \neq 0$:

$$\text{Algebra } \mathbb{H}: \Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & f & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ f & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } M = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & f & 0 & 1 \\ f & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; P = (-1, 0) \text{ and}$$

$Q = (1, 1)$.

The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2f & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Subcase 4.3.2: $Q = (q, 0)$ where $q \neq \pm 1$. The system C has four solutions up to linear transformation with $\Sigma_{12} \neq 0$ and $\Sigma_{21} \neq 0$:

Algebra \mathbb{I} : $\Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} -q & -q & 1 & -q \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & -q \\ 1 & q & q & -q \\ -1 & -q & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $M = h \begin{pmatrix} -q & 1 & -q & -q \\ 1 & q & q & -q \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & -q \\ -1 & 1 & -q & -1 \end{pmatrix}$; $P = (-1, 0)$ and $Q = (q, 0)$ where $q^2 = -1$.

Algebra \mathbb{I} is Σ -M-dual to algebra \mathbb{F} . The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = 2h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Algebra \mathbb{J} : $\Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$; $P = (-1, 0)$ and $Q = (q, 0)$ where $q^2 = -1$.

Algebra \mathbb{J} is Σ -M-dual to algebra \mathbb{E} . The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = 2h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Algebra \mathbb{K} : $\Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & f & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $M = h \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & f & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ where $f \neq 0$;
 $P = (-1, 0)$ and $Q = (q, 0)$ where q is a general parameter which could be ± 1 .
The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & f \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Algebra \mathbb{L} : $\Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & f & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ f & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $M = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & f & 0 & 0 \\ f & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ where $f \neq 0$;
 $P = (-1, 0)$ and $Q = (q, 0)$ where q is a general parameter which could be ± 1 .
The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = h^2 \begin{pmatrix} f^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Subcase 4.3.3: $Q = (-1, 0)$. There are nine C-solutions up to linear transformation that have $\Sigma_{12} \neq 0$ and $\Sigma_{21} \neq 0$.

Algebra \mathbb{M} : $\Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ f & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & -f & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $M = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ f & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -f & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ where $f \neq 1$; $P = Q = (-1, 0)$.

Algebra \mathbb{M} is Σ -M-selfdual. The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = (1 - f)h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Algebra \mathbb{N} : $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -g & 0 & f \\ g & 0 & f & 0 \\ 0 & f & 0 & -g \\ f & 0 & g & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -g & f \\ 0 & 0 & f & -g \\ g & f & 0 & 0 \\ f & g & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ where $f^2 \neq g^2$; $P = Q = (-1, 0)$.

The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = (f^2 - g^2) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Algebra \mathbb{O} : $\Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & f \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & f & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $M = h \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & f \\ 0 & -1 & f & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ where $f \neq 1$; $P = Q = (-1, 0)$. A special case is when $f = 0$. The algebra \mathbb{O} is Σ -M-selfdual.

The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = (f - 1)h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Algebra \mathbb{P} : $\Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & f \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -f & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $M = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & f \\ 1 & 0 & -f & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ where $f \neq 1$; $P = Q = (-1, 0)$. A special case is when $f = 0$.

The algebra \mathbb{P} is Σ -M-dual to the algebra \mathbb{N} . The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = (1 - f)h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Algebra \mathbb{Q} : $\Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $M = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$; $P = Q = (-1, 0)$.

The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = h^2 \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Algebra \mathbb{R} : $\Sigma = M = h \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$; $P = Q = (-1, 0)$. So the algebra \mathbb{R} is Σ -M-selfdual. The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Algebra \mathbb{S} : $\Sigma = M = h \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$; $P = Q = (-1, 0)$. The algebra \mathbb{S} is Σ -M-selfdual. The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = 4h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Algebra \mathbb{T} : $\Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $M = h \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$;
 $P = Q = (-1, 0)$.
The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = 4h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Algebra \mathbb{U} : $\Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $M = h \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$;
 $P = Q = (-1, 0)$. The algebras \mathbb{T} and \mathbb{U} are Σ -M-dual. The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = 4h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Subcase 4.3.4: $Q = (1, 0)$. We can make linear transformations of X to make that Σ_{12} is one of the standard forms: $\Sigma_{12} = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 & 0 \\ 0 & c_1 \end{pmatrix}$ or $\Sigma_{12} = \begin{pmatrix} c & 0 \\ 1 & c \end{pmatrix}$. In particular we may assume either $a_{1212} = 0 = a_{1221}$ or $a_{1212} = 0$ and $a_{1221} = 1$.

Let's consider the first case by assuming $a_{1212} = 0 = a_{1221}$. If $a_{1211} = 0 = a_{1222}$, then $\Sigma_{12} = 0$, we don't need to consider this. Otherwise after exchanging x_1 and x_2 , we may always assume that $a_{1211} \neq 0$. Replacing y_i by scalar multiples, we may assume that $a_{1211} = 1$. In addition to those equivalent to the algebras \mathbb{K} and \mathbb{L} , the System C has two more solutions:

$$\text{Algebra } \mathbb{V}: \Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } M = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}; P = (-1, 0)$$

and $Q = (1, 0)$.

The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = h^2 \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Algebra \mathbb{W} : $\Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & f & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & f \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $M = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & f & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & f \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ where
 $f \neq -1$; $P = (-1, 0)$ and $Q = (1, 0)$.

The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = (f+1)h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

In the rest of Subcase 4.3.4, we assume that $a_{1212} = 0$ and $a_{1221} = 1$ and $a_{1211} = a_{1222}$.

The System C has two solutions:

$$\text{Algebra } \mathbb{X}: \Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } M = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; P = (-1, 0) \text{ and}$$

$Q = (1, 0)$.

The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\text{Algebra } \mathbb{Y}: \Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ f & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & f & -1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } M = h \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ f & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & f & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}; P =$$

$(-1, 0)$ and $Q = (1, 0)$.

The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

4.4. Case four: $P = (1, 0)$. This is the last piece of the classification. As before we consider the following four subcases.

Subcase 4.4.1: $Q = (1, 1)$. Up to linear transformation all C-solutions give rise to iterated Ore extensions.

Subcase 4.4.2: $Q = (q, 0)$ where $q \neq \pm 1$. Up to linear transformation all C-solutions give rise to iterated Ore extensions.

Subcase 4.4.3: $Q = (1, 0)$. All C-solutions give rise to iterated Ore extensions up to linear transformation.

Subcase 4.4.4: $Q = (-1, 0)$. Up to linear transformation we have two C-solutions which could lead to non-trivial double extensions. The first one is $\Sigma =$

$$h \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } M = h \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}; P = (1, 0) \text{ and } Q = (-1, 0).$$

This is a special case of the algebra \mathbb{D} . The final case is

$$\text{Algebra } \mathbb{Z}: \Sigma = h \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & f & -1 & 0 \\ f & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } M = h \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & f & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ f & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ where}$$

$f(1+f) \neq 0$; $P = (1, 0)$ and $Q = (-1, 0)$.

The determinant of σ is

$$\det \sigma \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = -(f+1)h^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

When $f = -1$, the matrix Σ is singular. When $f = 0$, then $\Sigma_{21} = 0$. Note that the algebra \mathbb{Z} is Σ - M -dual to the algebra \mathbb{W} . To see this we need to use linear transformations. The M -matrix of the algebra \mathbb{Z} can be changed to

$$M = h \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & \sqrt{f} & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -\sqrt{f} \\ \sqrt{f} & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -\sqrt{f} & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

after a linear transformation $\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{f} & 1 \\ \sqrt{f} & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}$ which is equivalent to the Σ -matrix of the algebra \mathbb{W} up to a linear transformation. This also shows that it is not obvious when two algebras are Σ - M -dual in general.

Finally we list all relations of the algebra \mathbb{Z} :

$$\begin{aligned} x_2x_1 &= -x_1x_2 \\ y_2y_1 &= y_1y_2 \\ y_1x_1 &= x_1y_2 + x_2y_2 \\ y_1x_2 &= x_2y_1 + x_1y_2 \\ y_2x_1 &= fx_2y_1 - x_1y_2 \\ y_2x_2 &= fx_1y_2 - x_2y_2 \end{aligned}$$

We summarize what we did in this section in the following proposition that is also part (b) of Theorem 0.1. We use \mathcal{LIST} to denote the class consisting of all these 26 algebras from \mathbb{A} to \mathbb{Z} .

Proposition 4.4. *Suppose that $B := (k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$ is a connected graded double extension with x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2 in degree 1. If B is not an iterated Ore extension of $k_Q[x_1, x_2]$, then the trimmed double extension $(k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ is isomorphic to one of in the \mathcal{LIST} .*

Remark 4.5. The algebras \mathbb{E} and \mathbb{J} are Σ - M -dual. Consequently, \mathbb{E} and \mathbb{J} are isomorphic to each other by sending x_i 's to y_i 's. However non-trimmed double extensions extended from the algebras \mathbb{E} and \mathbb{J} may not be isomorphic, because the roles played by x_i 's and y_i 's are different in the non-trimmed double extensions $(k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$. For the purpose of finding all non-trimmed double extensions (which is another interesting project), we want to distinguish \mathbb{E} from \mathbb{J} in our list. This remark applies to all Σ - M -dual pairs.

5. PROPERTIES OF DOUBLE EXTENSIONS

In this section we prove that all trimmed double extensions in the \mathcal{LIST} classified in the last section are strongly noetherian, Auslander regular and Cohen-Macaulay. It seems to us that there is no uniform method that works for all algebras, so we have to show this case by case. First we recall a result of [28].

Theorem 5.1. [28, Theorem 0.2] *Let A be a regular algebra. Then any double extension $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$ is regular. As a consequence, a double extension of the form $(k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$ is regular.*

This theorem ensures the Artin-Schelter regularity for algebras in the \mathcal{LIST} . For non-regular rings, it is convenient to use dualizing complexes which was introduced in [24]. We will only use some facts about rings with dualizing complexes and refer to [25] for definitions and properties and other details.

An algebra A is called *strongly noetherian* if for every commutative noetherian (ungraded) ring S , $A \otimes S$ is noetherian [2, p.580]. Let A be a noetherian algebra with a dualizing complex R . For any left A -module M , the grade of M is defined to be

$$j_R(M) = \inf\{i \mid \text{Ext}_A^i(M, R) \neq 0\}.$$

The grade of a right A -module is defined similarly. The dualizing complex is called *Cohen-Macaulay* if there is a finite integer d such that

$$j_R(M) + \text{GKdim } M = d$$

for all finitely generated left and right nonzero A -modules M . The dualizing complex R is called *Auslander* [25, Definition 2.1] if the following conditions hold.

- (a) for every finitely generated left A -module M , every integer q , and any right A -submodule $N \subset \text{Ext}_A^q(M, R)$, one has $j(N) \geq q$;
- (b) the same holds after exchanging left with right.

Since A is connected graded, the balanced dualizing complex over A (which is unique) is defined [24]. For simplicity, we say A has *Auslander property* (respectively, *Cohen-Macaulay property*) if (a) the balanced dualizing complex over A exists and (b) the balanced dualizing complex of A has the Auslander property (respectively, Cohen-Macaulay property).

If A is regular (or Artin-Schelter Gorenstein), then the balanced dualizing complex has the form of ${}^\sigma A(-l)[-n]$. In this case, our definition of Auslander regular and Cohen-Macaulay is equivalent to the usually definition given in [9], namely, A is Auslander regular and Cohen-Macaulay (by taking $R = A$ in the definition) if and only if (a) A is Artin-Schelter regular and (b) the balance dualizing complex of A has Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay properties. One of the usefulness of dualizing complexes is that Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay properties are defined for non-regular rings. For example, the Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay properties pass from a graded ring to any of its factor rings without worrying the regularity.

As we have seen that many double extensions are iterated Ore extensions. Those algebras are Auslander (and Auslander regular) and Cohen-Macaulay by the following lemma.

Lemma 5.2. *Let $B := A[t; \sigma, \delta]$ be a connected graded Ore extension of a noetherian algebra A .*

- (a) *If A is strongly noetherian, then so is B .*
- (b) *If A is Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay, so is B .*
- (c) *If A is regular of dimension three, then A is strongly noetherian and Auslander regular and Cohen-Macaulay.*
- (d) *If A is commutative (or PI), then A is strongly noetherian and Auslander regular and Cohen-Macaulay.*

Proof. (a) This is [2, Proposition 4.1(b)].

(b) We construct a connected graded noetherian filtration on B by setting new degree of t to be $\deg t + 1$, so the associated graded ring of B has the property

$\text{gr } B \cong A[t; \sigma]$. By [25, Corollary 6.8], we only need to show the assertion for $A[t; \sigma]$. Then it follows from [25, Theorem 5.1].

(c) For the strongly noetherian property, we note that there is a normal element g of degree 3 such that $A/(g)$ is noetherian of GKdim 2. By [2, Theorem 4.24], $A/(g)$ is strongly noetherian, and by [2, Proposition 4.9], A is strongly noetherian. The rest is [9, Corollary 6.2].

(d) See [2, Proposition 4.9(5)] and [25, Corollary 6.9(i)]. \square

As seen in the last section, many algebras are Ore extensions of regular algebras of dimension three. By the above lemma, the following proposition is proved.

Proposition 5.3. *Algebras \mathbb{A} , \mathbb{D} , \mathbb{G} , \mathbb{H} , \mathbb{K} , \mathbb{L} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{V} , \mathbb{X} and \mathbb{Y} are strongly noetherian, Auslander regular and Cohen-Macaulay.*

Proof. In each of these cases, we have either $M_{12} = 0$ or $M_{21} = 0$. So every algebra can be written as an Ore extension of a regular algebra of dimension three. The assertion follows from Lemma 5.2. \square

The following is proved in [28].

Lemma 5.4. [28, Proposition 0.5 and Section 4] *The algebra \mathbb{R} is strongly noetherian, Auslander regular and Cohen-Macaulay.*

It is clear that B is strongly noetherian, Auslander regular and Cohen-Macaulay if and only if the opposite ring B^{op} is. If two double extensions are Σ -M-dual, then they are opposite to each other up to equivalences (see Proposition 3.7 and Definition 4.3). Therefore we have the following.

Lemma 5.5. *If algebras A and B are Σ -M-dual, then A is strongly noetherian, Auslander (or Auslander regular) and Cohen-Macaulay if and only if B is.*

So we can pair together Σ -M-dual algebras: (\mathbb{E}, \mathbb{J}) , (\mathbb{F}, \mathbb{I}) , (\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{P}) , (\mathbb{T}, \mathbb{U}) and (\mathbb{W}, \mathbb{Z}) . Other algebras Σ -M-selfdual: $\mathbb{B}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{M}, \mathbb{O}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{S}$. (See Lemma 5.4 for the algebra \mathbb{R}). Basically it reduces to ten algebras to work on.

The following three lemma are well-known.

Lemma 5.6. *Let A be a connected graded algebra and let t be a homogeneous normal element of A (not necessarily a nonzerodivisor).*

- (a) [2, Proposition 4.9] *A is noetherian (respectively, strongly noetherian) if and only if $A/(t)$ is.*
- (b) [25, Theorem 5.1] *Suppose A is noetherian. Then A is Auslander (respectively, strongly noetherian, Cohen-Macaulay) if and only if $A/(t)$ is.*

Lemma 5.7. [25, Proposition 3.9] *Let A and B be a connected graded algebras.*

- (a) *Suppose $A \subset B$ and B_A and ${}_A B$ are finite. If A is strongly noetherian, Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay, then so is B .*
- (b) *Suppose B is a factor ring A/I . If A is strongly noetherian, Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay, then so is B .*

Lemma 5.8. *Let B be a graded twist of A in the sense of [26]. Then A is strongly noetherian, Auslander (or Auslander regular) and Cohen-Macaulay if and only if B is.*

The usefulness of Lemma 5.8 is that if two algebras A and B are twist-equivalent in the sense of Definition 3.3, then A is strongly noetherian, Auslander (or Auslander regular) and Cohen-Macaulay if and only if B is. In particular, when we prove a double extension is strongly noetherian, Auslander (or Auslander regular) and Cohen-Macaulay, we may assume that $h = 1$, which we will do in the rest of this section.

Let A be a graded ring and n be a positive integer. The n th Veronese subring of A is defined to be

$$A^{(n)} = \bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} A_{in}.$$

For later discussion we will use the following special case of Lemma 5.7(a).

Lemma 5.9. *Let $k_Q[x_1, x_2]^{(2)}$ be the 2nd Veronese subring of $k_Q[x_1, x_2]$. Then the algebra $(k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ has the noetherian property if and only if the subalgebra $(k_Q[x_1, x_2]^{(2)})_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ does. Same for strongly noetherian, Auslander, Cohen-Macaulay properties.*

The algebra $(k_Q[x_1, x_2]^{(2)})_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ is a double extension of $k_Q[x_1, x_2]^{(2)}$ where σ is the restriction of σ on the 2nd Veronese subring. The next lemma is particularly useful for the algebras such as \mathbb{B} .

Lemma 5.10. *If $\Sigma_{11} = \Sigma_{22} = 0$, then the double extension is strongly noetherian, Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay.*

Proof. In this case $\sigma_{11} = 0 = \sigma_{22}$. For every $a \in kx_1 + kx_2$ we have

$$y_1 a = \sigma_{12}(a) y_2 \quad \text{and} \quad y_2 a = \sigma_{21}(a) y_1.$$

Hence for every $a, b \in kx_1 + kx_2$,

$$y_1 a b = \sigma_{12}(a) \sigma_{21}(b) y_1 \quad \text{and} \quad y_2 a b = \sigma_{21}(a) \sigma_{12}(b) y_2.$$

Hence y_1 and y_2 are normal elements in $(k_Q[x_1, x_2]^{(2)})_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$.

It is well-known that $(k_Q[x_1, x_2]^{(2)})$ is strongly noetherian, Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay. By Lemma 5.6(a), so is $(k_Q[x_1, x_2]^{(2)})_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$. The assertion follows from Lemma 5.9. \square

Here is a consequence of Lemma 5.10.

Proposition 5.11. *The algebras \mathbb{B} , \mathbb{E} , \mathbb{J} , \mathbb{N} and \mathbb{P} are strongly noetherian, Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay.*

Proof. Lemma 5.10 is applied directly to the algebra \mathbb{B} , \mathbb{E} and \mathbb{P} . For the algebras \mathbb{J} and \mathbb{N} , use Σ - M -dual property (see Lemma 5.5) and then apply Lemma 5.10. \square

We will leave the algebra \mathbb{C} to the end and work on other algebras first.

Proposition 5.12. *The algebras \mathbb{F} and \mathbb{I} are strongly noetherian, Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay.*

Proof. Since the algebra \mathbb{F} is Σ - M -dual to the algebra \mathbb{I} , we only consider \mathbb{I} .

The relations of the algebra \mathbb{I} are

$$\begin{aligned} x_2x_1 &= qx_1x_2 \\ y_2y_1 &= -y_1y_2 \\ y_1x_1 &= -qx_1y_1 - qx_2y_1 + x_1y_2 - qx_2y_2 \\ y_1x_2 &= x_1y_1 + x_2y_1 + x_1y_2 - qx_2y_2 \\ y_2x_1 &= x_1y_1 + qx_2y_1 + qx_1y_2 - qx_2y_2 \\ y_2x_2 &= -x_1y_1 - qx_2y_1 + x_1y_2 - x_2y_2 \end{aligned}$$

where $q^2 = -1$. We have assumed $h = 1$ by using Lemma 5.8. Using these relations we obtain the following relations

$$\begin{aligned} y_1(x_1 - x_2) &= (-1 - q)(x_1 + x_2)y_1 \\ y_1(x_1 + qx_2) &= (1 + q)(x_1 - qx_2)y_2 \\ y_2(x_1 + x_2) &= (1 + q)(x_1 - x_2)y_2 \\ y_2(x_1 - qx_2) &= (1 + q)(x_1 + qx_2)y_2 \end{aligned}$$

Using the first and the third relations above we have

$$\begin{aligned} y_1y_2(x_1 - x_2) &= -y_2y_1(x_1 - x_2) = (1 + q)y_2(x_1 + x_2)y_1 \\ &= (1 + q)^2(x_1 - x_2)y_2y_1 = -(1 + q)^2(x_1 - x_2)y_1y_2 \end{aligned}$$

A similar computation shows that

$$y_1y_2(x_1 + x_2) = -(1 + q)^2(x_1 + x_2)y_1y_2$$

Hence y_1y_2 is skew-commuting with x_i 's with the scalar $-(1 + q)^2$. So it is a normal element in $D := (k_P[y_1, y_2]^{(2)})_Q[x_1, x_2]$.

Using the original relations one also sees that

$$\begin{aligned} (y_1 + qy_2)x_1 &= (-1 - q)x_2(y_1 + qy_2) \\ (y_1 - qy_2)x_2 &= (1 + q)x_1(y_1 - qy_2) \end{aligned}$$

Then we have

$$(y_1 + qy_2)(y_1 - qy_2)x_2 = (1 + q)(y_1 + qy_2)x_1(y_1 - qy_2) = -(1 + q)^2x_2(y_1 + qy_2)(y_1 + qy_2)$$

or

$$(y_1^2 + y_2^2 - 2qy_1y_2)x_2 = -(1 + q)^2x_2(y_1^2 + y_2^2 - 2qy_1y_2)$$

Using the relation

$$y_1y_2x_2 = -(1 + q)^2x_2y_1y_2$$

which was proved in the last paragraph, we obtain

$$(y_1^2 + y_2^2)x_2 = -(1 + q)^2x_2(y_1^2 + y_2^2).$$

By symmetry,

$$(y_1^2 + y_2^2)x_1 = -(1 + q)^2x_1(y_1^2 + y_2^2).$$

Hence both y_1y_2 and $y_1^2 + y_2^2$ are normal elements in D . The factor ring $D/(y_1y_2, y_1^2 + y_2^2)$ is a finite module over $k_Q[x_1, x_2]$. The assertion follows from Lemmas 5.6, 5.7 and 5.9. \square

Proposition 5.13. *The algebras \mathbb{M} and \mathbb{O} are strongly noetherian, Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay.*

Proof. We first consider the algebra \mathbb{O} , then sketch for the algebra \mathbb{M} .

The mixing relations of the algebra \mathbb{O} are

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 x_1 &= x_1 y_1 + f x_2 y_2 \\ y_1 x_2 &= -x_2 y_1 + x_1 y_2 \\ y_2 x_1 &= f x_2 y_1 - x_1 y_2 \\ y_2 x_2 &= x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2. \end{aligned}$$

Using these we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(E5.11.1)} \quad y_1 x_1^2 &= (x_1 y_1 + f x_2 y_2) x_1 \\ &= x_1 (x_1 y_1 + f x_2 y_2) + f x_2 (f x_2 y_1 - x_1 y_2) \\ &= (x_1^2 + f^2 x_2^2) y_1 + 2f x_1 x_2 y_2. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly we have the following

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(E5.11.2)} \quad y_1 x_2^2 &= (x_1^2 + x_2^2) y_1 + 2x_1 x_2 y_2, \\ \text{(E5.11.3)} \quad y_1 x_1 x_2 &= (-1 - f) x_1 x_2 y_1 + (x_1^2 + f x_2^2) y_2, \\ \text{(E5.11.4)} \quad y_2 x_1^2 &= -2f x_1 x_2 y_1 + (x_1^2 + f^2 x_2^2) y_2, \\ \text{(E5.11.5)} \quad y_2 x_2^2 &= -2x_1 x_2 y_1 + (x_1^2 + x_2^2) y_2, \\ \text{(E5.11.6)} \quad y_2 x_1 x_2 &= (-x_1^2 - f x_2^2) y_1 + (-1 - f) x_1 x_2 y_2. \end{aligned}$$

A linear combination of (E5.11.1) and (E5.11.2) gives rise to

$$y_1 (x_1 - f x_2^2) = (1 - f) (x_1^2 - f x_2^2) y_1$$

and a linear combination of (E5.11.4) and (E5.11.5) gives rise to

$$y_2 (x_1 - f x_2^2) = (1 - f) (x_1 - f x_2^2) y_2.$$

Therefore $x_1^2 - f x_2^2$ is a normal element in the algebra \mathbb{O} . By Lemma 5.9 we only need to show that $D' := k_Q[x_1, x_2]_P^{(2)}[y_1, y_2]$ has the properties stated in Proposition 5.13. By Lemma 5.6(b) we only need to show that the factor ring $D := D' / (x_1^2 - f x_2^2)$ has the desired properties. Now let us introduce some new variables: $X_1 = x_1^2$ and $X_2 = x_1 x_2$. Then we have $X_1 X_2 = X_2 X_1$, $y_1 y_2 = -y_2 y_1$; and, after identifying $f x_2^2$ with X_1 in the algebra D , (E5.11.2)-(E5.11.6) imply

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 X_1 &= (1 + f) X_1 y_1 + 2f X_2 y_2, \\ y_1 X_2 &= (-1 - f) X_2 y_1 + 2X_1 y_2, \\ y_2 X_1 &= -2f X_2 y_1 + (1 + f) X_1 y_2, \\ y_2 X_2 &= -2X_1 y_1 + (-1 - f) X_2 y_2. \end{aligned}$$

Use these relations we see that

$$(y_1 + i y_2) X_1 = ((1 + f) X_1 - 2i f X_2) (y_1 + i y_2),$$

and

$$(y_1 + i y_2) X_2 = (-2i X_1 - (1 + f) X_2) (y_1 + i y_2).$$

So $y_1 + i y_2$ is skew-commuting with X_i 's. Similarly, $y_1 - i y_2$ is skew-commuting with X_i 's. Thus $(y_1 - i y_2)^2$, $(y_1 + i y_2)(y_1 - i y_2)$ and $(y_1 - i y_2)(y_1 + i y_2)$ are all skew-commuting with X_i 's. Note that $\{(y_1 - i y_2)^2, (y_1 + i y_2)(y_1 - i y_2), (y_1 - i y_2)(y_1 + i y_2)\}$ is a k -linear basis for $k_P[y_1, y_2]_2$. Since $y_1 y_2 = -y_2 y_1$, the subalgebra of $C \subset D$

generated by X_1, X_2 and the degree two elements in $k_P[y_1, y_2]$ are in fact generated by five normal elements in C . By Lemma 5.6 C has the desired properties. Since B is a finite module over C , B has the desired properties. This finishes the case \mathbb{O} .

The proof for Case \mathbb{M} is similar. The details are omitted since we can use the proof in the case of the algebra \mathbb{O} . Let us only give a few key points. We work inside the ring $D' := k_Q[x_1, x_2]_P^{(2)}[y_1, y_2]$. First we show that $fx_1^2 - x_2^2$ is normal. Modulo $fx_1^2 - x_2$ in D' , elements $y_1 + iy_2$ and $y_1 - iy_2$ are skew-commuting with $X_1 := x_2^2$ and $X_2 = x_1x_2$. Therefore the algebra \mathbb{M} is strongly noetherian, Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay. \square

Near the end of the proof of Proposition 5.13, we use the fact $y_1 \pm iy_2$ are skew-commuting with X_i . This ideas can be used for the algebra \mathbb{S} . We say an element x is skew commutative with y_1 and y_2 in side a ring D if $x(ky_1 + ky_2) = (ky_1 + ky_2)x$ holds in D .

Lemma 5.14. *Let B be an algebra $(k_Q[x_1, x_2])_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$ with $Q = (-1, 0)$. If $x_1 - x_2$ and $x_1 + x_2$ are skew commutating with y_i 's, then B is strongly noetherian, Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay.*

Proof. Let

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 &= (x_1 + x_2)^2 = x_1^2 + x_2^2, \\ a_2 &= (x_1 - x_2)(x_1 + x_2) = x_1^2 + 2x_1x_2 - x_2^2 \\ a_3 &= (x_1 + x_2)(x_1 - x_2) = x_1^2 - 2x_1x_2 - x_2^2. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$ is a k -linear basis of $k_Q[x_1, x_2]_2$. By hypotheses, $x_1 - x_2$ and $x_1 + x_2$ are skew-commuting with y_1, y_2 . Hence a_1, a_2, a_3 are normalizing elements in $D := (k_Q[x_1, x_2]_P^{(2)})[y_1, y_2; \sigma]$. Clearly, the factor ring $D/(a_1, a_2, a_3)$ is isomorphic to $k_P[y_1, y_2]$, which is strongly noetherian, Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay. The assertion follows from Lemmas 5.6, 5.7 and 5.9. \square

Proposition 5.15. *The algebras \mathbb{S} , \mathbb{T} , \mathbb{U} , \mathbb{W} and \mathbb{Z} is strongly noetherian, Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay.*

Proof. First we consider the algebra \mathbb{T} . The four mixing relations of the algebra \mathbb{T} are

$$\begin{aligned} y_1x_1 &= -x_1y_1 + x_2y_1 + x_1y_2 + x_2y_2 \\ y_1x_2 &= x_1y_1 - x_2y_1 + x_1y_2 + x_2y_2 \\ y_2x_1 &= x_1y_1 + x_2y_1 + x_1y_2 - x_2y_2 \\ y_2x_2 &= x_1y_1 + x_2y_1 - x_1y_2 + x_2y_2. \end{aligned}$$

Using these we obtain that

$$y_1(x_1 + x_2) = 2(x_1 + x_2)y_2 \quad \text{and} \quad y_2(x_1 + x_2) = 2(x_1 + x_2)y_1.$$

Hence $x_1 + x_2$ is skew-commuting with y_i s. Similarly, $x_1 - x_2$ is skew-commuting y_i s. The assertion for the algebra \mathbb{T} follows from Lemma 5.14.

Since the algebra \mathbb{U} is Σ - M -dual to the algebra \mathbb{T} . The assertion for the algebra \mathbb{U} follows from Lemma 5.5.

The proof for the algebra \mathbb{S} is very similar to the proof for the algebra \mathbb{T} . So the details are omitted.

For the algebra \mathbb{Z} , we use Lemma 5.14 again. Note that $Q = (-1, 0)$. The mixing relations of this algebra imply that

$$\begin{aligned} y_1(x_1 + x_2) &= (x_1 + x_2)(y_1 + y_2) \\ y_2(x_1 + x_2) &= (x_1 + x_2)(fy_1 - y_2) \\ y_1(x_1 - x_2) &= (x_1 - x_2)(y_1 - y_2) \\ y_2(x_1 - x_2) &= (x_1 - x_2)(-fy_1 - y_2). \end{aligned}$$

These relations show that $x_1 - x_2$ and $x_1 + x_2$ are skew-commuting with y_i . The assertion follows from Lemma 5.14.

Since the algebra \mathbb{W} is Σ - M -dual to the algebra \mathbb{Z} . The assertion for \mathbb{W} follows from Lemma 5.5. \square

The last case to deal with is the algebra \mathbb{C} , which is slightly more complicated.

Proposition 5.16. *The algebra \mathbb{C} is strongly noetherian, Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay.*

Proof. First we list the relations of the algebra \mathbb{C} as follows:

$$y_2y_1 = py_1y_2 \quad \text{and} \quad x_2x_1 = px_1x_2$$

where $p^2 + p + 1 = 0$ (or $p^3 = 1$ and $p \neq 1$); and

$$\begin{aligned} y_1x_1 &= -x_1y_1 + p^2x_2y_1 + x_1y_2 - px_2y_2 \\ y_1x_2 &= -px_1y_1 + x_2y_1 + x_1y_2 - px_2y_2 \\ y_2x_1 &= -px_1y_1 - 2p^2x_2y_1 + px_1y_2 - px_2y_2 \\ y_2x_2 &= -px_1y_1 + p^2x_2y_1 + x_1y_2 - x_2y_2. \end{aligned}$$

Using these relations we obtain the following

$$\begin{aligned} y_1(x_1 - x_2) &= (p - 1)(x_1 - p^2x_2)y_1 \\ y_1(x_1 - p^2x_2) &= (1 - p^2)(x_1 - px_2)y_2 \\ y_2(x_1 - px_2) &= (p^2 - p)(x_1 - x_2)y_1. \end{aligned}$$

These three relations are used in the following computations:

$$\begin{aligned} y_1^2y_2(x_1 - px_2) &= (p^2 - p)y_1^2(x_1 - x_2)y_1 \\ &= (p^2 - p)(p - 1)y_1(x_1 - p^2x_2)y_1^2 \\ &= (p^2 - p)(p - 1)(1 - p^2)(x_1 - px_2)y_2y_1^2 \\ &= (p - 1)^2(1 - p^2)(x_1 - px_2)y_1^2y_2. \end{aligned}$$

The same three relations also imply

$$y_2y_1^2(x_1 - x_2) = (p - 1)^2(1 - p^2)(x_1 - x_2)y_2y_1^2.$$

Since $y_2y_1^2 = p^2y_1^2y_2$, $y_1^2y_2$ is skew-commuting with x_1 and x_2 with scalar $(p - 1)^2(1 - p^2)$. Since $y_1^2y_2$ is skew-commuting with y_1 and y_2 , it is a normalizing element in the algebra \mathbb{C} .

Next we will find another normalizing element in degree 3. Using the four mixing relations we obtain three other relations:

$$\begin{aligned}(y_1 - y_2)x_2 &= (1 - p^2)x_2(y_1 - py_2) \\ (y_1 - py_2)x_2 &= (p^2 - p)x_1(y_1 - p^2y_2) \\ (y_1 - p^2y_2)x_1 &= (p - 1)x_2(y_1 - y_2).\end{aligned}$$

The first relations of these three shows that

$$(y_1 - y_2)^3 x_2 = (1 - p^2)^3 x_2 (y_1 - py_2)^3.$$

It is easy to show that

$$(y_1 - y_2)^3 = (y_1 - py_2)^3 = (y_1 - p^2y_2)^3 = y_1^3 - y_2^3.$$

Thus $y_1^3 - y_2^3$ is skew-commuting with x_2 with scalar $(1 - p^2)^3$. Using all three relations we obtain that

$$\begin{aligned}(y_1 - py_2)(y_1 - y_2)(y_1 - p^2y_2)x_1 \\ &= (p - 1)(y_1 - py_2)(y_1 - y_2)x_2(y_1 - y_2) \\ &= (p - 1)(1 - p^2)(y_1 - py_2)x_2(y_1 - py_2)(y_1 - y_2) \\ &= (p - 1)(1 - p^2)(p^2 - p)x_1(y_1 - p^2y_2)(y_1 - py_2)(y_1 - y_2).\end{aligned}$$

An easy computation shows that

$$(y_1 - py_2)(y_1 - y_2)(y_1 - p^2y_2) = (y_1 - p^2y_2)(y_1 - py_2)(y_1 - y_2) = y_1^3 - y_2^3.$$

Therefore $y_1^3 - y_2^3$ is skew-commuting with x_1 . Since $y_1^3 - y_2^3$ is commuting with y_i 's. We conclude that $y_1^3 - y_2^3$ is a normalizing element in the algebra \mathbb{C} . After factoring out both elements $y_1^2y_2$ and $y_1^3 - y_2^3$ in \mathbb{C} , the factor ring is finite module over $k_Q[x_1, x_2]$. By Lemmas 5.6, 5.7 and 5.9, the algebra \mathbb{C} is strongly noetherian, Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay. \square

Combining these propositions we have

Theorem 5.17. *The algebras \mathbb{A} to \mathbb{Z} are strongly noetherian, Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay.*

We are (almost) ready to prove Theorem 0.1. We refer to [25, Section 6] for the definitions related to noetherian filtrations.

Lemma 5.18. *Let A be a filtered algebra such that the associated graded ring $\text{gr } A$ is strongly noetherian, Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay. Then so is A .*

Proof. By [2, Proposition 4.10], A is strong noetherian. The rest follows from [25, Corollary 6.8]. \square

Proof of Theorem 0.1. The regularity follows from Theorem 5.1.

(c) This is Proposition 4.4.

(a) Let B be a double extension $A_P[y_1, y_2; \sigma, \delta, \tau]$ where $A = k_Q[x_1, x_2]$. If B is an iterated Ore extension of A , then the assertion follows from Lemma 5.2. Now we assume B is not an iterated Ore extension of A . By [28, Lemma 4.4], B has a filtration such that $\text{gr } B$ is the trimmed double extension. By Lemma 5.18, it suffices to show that the trimmed Ore extension is strongly noetherian, Auslander and Cohen-Macaulay. By part (c), since B is not an iterated Ore extension of A , the trimmed double extension is one of the algebras \mathbb{A} to \mathbb{Z} . Therefore the assertion follows from Theorem 5.17.

(b) This is [10, Proposition 1.4]. \square

Recall that a regular algebra B is called a normal extension if there is a non-zero-divisor x of degree 1 such that $B/(x)$ is Artin-Schelter regular. Many of the algebras in the \mathcal{LIST} are not isomorphic to either Ore extensions or normal extension of regular algebras of dimension three. This can be proved by using the method in the proof of [28, Lemmas 4.9 and 4.10].

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